

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE English newspapers are generally agreed that America has come off with flying colors at the Samoan Conference, and has for the first time taken rank as a first-class Power in diplomacy. The victory, if it is to be considered such, has been gained in spite of the teachings of Washington, and in contravention of our unbroken foreign policy of a hundred years. Therefore it can be justified only by the event. It is our belief that meddling in Samoan affairs, as it has cost more in the past than it has yielded, so it will cost a great deal more in the future, because, in the first place, there is nothing in Samoa worth going for, even if it were conveniently situated, and because, in the second place, it is at too great a distance, being a thousand miles further from San Francisco than Liverpool is from New York. Nor do we think that a diplomatic triumph over Germany under the circumstances is a thing to be proud of. Nevertheless, the Samoan complication was an old-time legacy, dating from 1872. It had fallen to the heirs and assigns of Gen. Grant's Administration, and it had to be dealt with. The wisest policy for us would have been to renounce under the will; but if national pride would not admit of this, the next best thing would have been to have the very least, and not the very greatest, share in the responsibility for the government of the islands.

It is small wonder that Canada wishes to rid herself of the title of "Boodlers' Paradise," which the presence within her limits of so many fugitives from justice in other States has fixed upon her. The full number of such residents who have fled thither from the United States, according to an Ottawa despatch in the *Times*, is placed by a secret-service officer at 2,000. They include all kinds of defaulters and thieves, from the indicted boodle Aldermen and "Billy" Moloney, down through all stages of bank officials who have either run away with bank funds, or have fled to escape the penalties of discoveries that they have been spending those funds without permission. The new law surrendering all such criminals, all expenses of arrest and surrender to be borne by the foreign State, has gone to England for consideration and approval by the Imperial Government. The law will go into effect as soon as the proclamation making it applicable to Mexico and the United States is published in the official gazette. It is thought that fugitives already in the Dominion will be safe, but there is some risk involved for them. An amendment was offered while the bill was under consideration making it retroactive, but this was defeated. It was supposed that this made it applicable only to future fugitives, but it seems that all legislation affecting extradition is retroactive unless otherwise ex-

pressed, so that Parliament failed to accomplish what it intended. The Boodlers must depend upon the Minister of Justice for safety. He has the power of granting extradition warrants, and if he shall decide that he must carry out the clearly expressed intention of Parliament, they are all right; but if he shall decide that he must follow the letter of the law, they will be obliged to seek new quarters without delay.

The New York *Times* has advices from Montreal that the Imperial Government has no objection to the act. This is a very important step in international law and practice, and one which might be and probably will be imitated generally among civilized States, after a brief trial of the experiment by Canada. For the first time, we believe, the principle has been recognized that the systematic surrender of fugitives from justice need not depend upon mutual agreements, on the principle of give-and-take, but that it may be properly conducted on the same lines as those which define and govern the surrender of culprits from one court jurisdiction to another in the same country. Also, that the reasons which apply to the surrender for crimes of a high grade, such as murder, robbery, and forgery, apply also to the lesser offences of larceny, embezzlement, and the obtaining of goods under false pretences. The surrender of criminals by the sovereign power without any treaty or law of any kind is not infrequent, and there has been one conspicuous case of this kind in our own history—that of Arguelles, the slave-trader, who was delivered to the Spanish authorities by order of Secretary Seward. But such transactions are dangerous from every point of view. The Canadian Government, it seems to us, has marked an advance in civilization.

Each day's despatches from Washington bring long lists of appointments to fourth-class post-offices, and it is announced that the number of changes in such offices last week reached the great total of 1,012. There are, of course, a few cases each week where death makes vacancies in these little offices; a few more where there are bona-fide resignations—that is, resignations which are not extorted by the threat that, unless furnished, the incumbents shall be dismissed with the stain upon their reputations of "charges" which they are never permitted to know; and a few others where appointments are made to new offices just established. It would be a most liberal estimate to set the number of changes called for by such legitimate causes in a week as 112. This would leave 900 as to which the presumption is that they are made solely for partisan reasons. This is 150 a day. Allowing Mr. Clarkson eight hours a day, this is nineteen changes an hour, or one every three minutes during working hours from the time he gets to his office on Monday morning until he leaves it on Saturday night for the much-needed rest

of Sunday. Of course it is a physical impossibility for the Assistant Postmaster-General who chops off the head of a postmaster every three minutes every day in the week, to know anything about the merits of any particular case; and he makes these appointments at the demands of those who represent the Republican Machine, without the slightest sense of personal responsibility. This is confessed by Mr. Clarkson without the smallest sense of shame.

The Administration is now reaping the fruits of its folly in turning over the most responsible bureau in the Government to a man whom no business house would think of intrusting with large financial transactions. All sorts of scandals are being unearthed in the Pension-Office under Corporal Tanner, from nepotism to unblushing favoritism towards pension attorneys who are his special cronies, and there are even rumors that he may be removed. But this Administration, like Grant's, seems more inclined to stand by its Tanners because they are "under fire," than to remove them, as the Boston *Journal* has found out. It is now more than a month since the *Journal* declared that "the Department should lose no time in getting rid of Paul Vandervoort, recently appointed Superintendent of Mails at Omaha," and more than a week since it declared that "the appointment of Mr. George P. Fisher as First Auditor of the Treasury, if all reports are correct, requires the attention of President Harrison without any unnecessary delay"; but Vandervoort and Fisher remain in office, and seem likely to remain so long as Harrison is President.

The tone of the Republican caucus of the New Hampshire Legislature, which renominated "Bill" Chandler for United States Senator, on Thursday evening, was well in keeping with the character of the performance. The caucus was held in a public hall, not privately in a legislative chamber, and the galleries were carefully "packed" with Chandler shouters. Realizing the current value of a pious approval for a public servant, Mr. Chandler had the speech putting his name before the caucus made by a clergyman, who performed the task with great unction. He spoke of Mr. Chandler as a "statesman of whom we all may be proud," and a "Republican whose glorious record stands in a clear light before the country," and besought his hearers to "behold in him the concentration of the cardinal political virtues." It was a sudden transition from this religious estimate of the candidate to that which was made in the speech which immediately followed, and which began thus: "I am here to attend an auction, not a caucus." The speaker was a lawyer and a Republican. He continued: "Chandler owes everything to Democratic support in this State. Votes have been bought for Chandler on the public streets—\$600 for one vote,

\$1,200 for two, and so on up the scale of iniquity." This kind of talk so disgusted the clergyman that he left the hall in as ostentatious a manner as possible. A Senator arose next and solemnly denied the charges of bribery in behalf of Mr. Chandler. After another denial, a vote was taken and Mr. Chandler was nominated. He was at once brought into the hall, and made a speech of acceptance. According to the *Tribune's* report, "he pledged his sacred honor that he had done nothing undignified, unworthy, or dishonest in the conduct of the canvass, had spent no money and promised no money for votes." It did not occur to him, apparently, that there was anything "undignified or unworthy" in a candidate for Senator of the United States feeling called upon to make such an announcement as that.

Senator Chandler was promptly reflected on Tuesday. He will go back to Washington, he tells his constituents, more than ever determined to secure the enforcement of the Fifteenth Amendment in the South. He will join hands with Col. Shepard of this city in keeping the Solid South in subjection. Both men are thoroughly aroused to the imminent peril of another war, and it will not be their fault if the country is plunged into it "unbeknownst." It is a long time since so powerful an alliance as this has been made, and if it is maintained faithfully by both parties to it, there is likely to be considerable commotion excited before the present year ends. Mr. Chandler is already so intensely occupied with the heinous designs of the South that he does not propose to take any further notice of the assertions of members of his own party that he bought his Senatorial seat; and Col. Shepard is so convinced that the new war is not only threatening, but is almost under way at this moment, that he has no time whatever to devote to the correction of more or less deliberate falsifications which he starts from time to time about his contemporaries in the press.

The Massachusetts Legislature has recently adjourned, and there is an extraordinary degree of unanimity in the opinions expressed regarding the session. It is generally agreed that the body has been exceptionally disorderly, inefficient, and corrupt. In Massachusetts, as everywhere, the standard of the law-maker is steadily sinking, and nobody is as yet able to point out an effective method of bringing about a reform. But it is obvious that something must be done, or our legislatures will before long become insufferable.

The Legislature of this State having passed a bill to make a preferred class of laborers at the expense of labor in general, by providing that all workingmen employed by the State shall receive two dollars per day of eight hours, and twenty-five cents per hour for overtime, an attempt is now making to hold Gov. Hill responsible for this one-sided measure because he did not veto it. We have never supposed that the present Governor of

this State would veto a bill of a demagogical character merely because it increased unnecessarily the burdens of the taxpayers, but in this case it is clear that the blame does not fall upon him. The Legislature is the taxing power, and if it chooses to vote away the public money, and to create a little aristocracy of laborers, and at the same time make "patronage" for the Democrats, the Governor is not bound to interfere. Under the new law every laborer in the employ of the State becomes a petty office-holder, because he gets something more than the current rate of wages; and since the Civil-Service Law does not apply in such cases, the laborers will pretty certainly be Democrats as long as their jobs continue. The spirit of demagoguery must be pretty deep-seated in a Republican Legislature which would thrust additional power into the hands of the opposing party at the instance of the labor unions.

Whatever becomes of the Clan-na-Gael leaders who are suspected of instigating the Cronin murder, it should not be forgotten that this organization, and not the great mass of Irish-Americans, is on trial. This is the organization which first and last has been the worst enemy the Irish race in America has ever had. It is led by men who see in Irish wrongs and sufferings nothing more than an opportunity to advance their own interests. They are the men who have raised vast sums of money for the Irish cause abroad, and have steadfastly refused to give any satisfactory accounting of it. For one year they succeeded in capturing the American branch of the Land League organization, and had Alexander Sullivan chosen President. No sooner were they in power than they attempted to commit the League to the dynamite policy of agitation, but, after a great struggle in the convention at Chicago in 1866, they were overthrown, and Parnell's policy of Parliamentary agitation was approved by a large majority. They are the men to whom Mr. Blaine turned in 1884, while they were in the very midst of their dynamite-explosion operations, for recruits to make good the revolt from his candidacy in the Republican ranks; and his alliance with them carried the Irish question into Congress, where it defeated two extradition treaties and the fisheries treaty, and made more mischief than any other single influence had caused in recent times. The same influence foisted Patrick Egan, one of their own number, upon us as American Minister to Chili. It would be an incalculable gain to the cause of home-rule and to American politics if the whole organization could be put in jail.

The Chicago and Alton Railroad has created some stir in railroad circles by urging a reduction of about six cents a hundred pounds on lumber from Chicago to Missouri River points. Few but railroad men troubled themselves to read the details. Few of those who read them imagined that they involved a question of almost national importance; and still fewer suspected that it had anything to do with the tariff. Yet such

was the case. A slight difference in rate from Chicago to Kansas City or Omaha was enough to determine whether the sections of the country west of the Missouri River which are now so rapidly developing, would use Northern or Southern pine as their chief building material. For a long time the white or Northern pine had the preference. Of late Arkansas has rapidly been supplanting the Northwest as a source of supply. Some of the Chicago roads, and especially the Alton, say that it is imperatively necessary for them to make a reduction to avoid losing the business altogether. The question of the relative rates from the different sections is an extremely complicated one. Yellow pine has an advantage in its greater weight, which enables heavier loads to be carried in a car. White pine has perhaps a still greater advantage, of moving in a direction in which otherwise many cars must be carried almost empty. The matter involves so many disputed points, both of business policy and of railroad economy, that it has taxed Commissioner Walker's ability to the utmost.

We cannot attempt to go into the details. The most interesting point to the general reader is probably this: The Chicago and Alton claims that the Southern pine is now supplanting the Northern over a much greater extent of territory, but that a reduction in white-pine rates of six cents a hundred pounds would be sufficient to neutralize the difference and put the two on equal terms. If this is true, it is obvious that the same result would be obtained by a similar reduction in price at the point of production; the price on delivery being, of course, determined by the sum of prices to the producer and to the transporting company. Now, if we count pine lumber at two pounds to the foot, the difference of six cents a hundred pounds amounts to \$1.20 per thousand feet. This is somewhat less than the duty on Canadian lumber, and may be fairly taken to represent the increase of price of the product which is due to the operation of the tariff. Whatever this profit is, it nearly all goes into the pockets of the lumber-men, as distinct from any one else; for they import their Canadian laborers and pay them little more than Canadian wages, so that the conditions of competition on both sides of the border are as nearly equal as they can be. If this reasoning be correct, it simply proves that Northern and Southern lumber, apart from the tariff, would to-day compete on substantially equal terms in supplying the district west of the Missouri River, but that the artificial increase of price which the tariff enables the Northern lumber-men to charge is driving the business away from them and into the hands of the Southern lumber-men, who are comparatively little affected by a tariff one way or the other. We need hardly point out the analogy between this competition of Southern lumber and the competition of Southern iron, which is likely to be so important in the immediate future. In both of these instances the tariff has in some measure created an artificial price for the benefit of a monopoly. In both cases the internal competition of new

ctions of the country less immediately affected by the tariff is rendering it impossible for the monopoly prices to be maintained in those districts which are now most actively developing.

The annual report of the Director of the mint shows that the production of gold during the calendar year 1888 was about \$33,000,000. That of silver during the same period was \$59,000,000. The gold production has remained pretty steady since the year 1880, while that of silver has risen \$10,000,000 during the period. The net exports of gold during the year were \$25,859,000, leaving, as an addition to the stock in the country at the end of the year, a little more than \$7,000,000. Probably the present tariff will carry off our current production, and perhaps also the accumulation of 1888, leaving us where we were at the end of 1887. The recent shipments of gold do not seem to have affected the money market or the stock market, and this is the best evidence (and the only evidence needed) to show that the exportation is a healthy movement.

Bimetallism is having a revival, or thinks it is having one, in both England and France. A deputation of the "friends of silver" waited on Lord Salisbury and Mr. Bismarck on the 30th ult. to present their views and to solicit the cooperation of the Government. They were received with politeness, but did not get much encouragement. Lord Salisbury told them plainly that they must bring the country around to their way of thinking before they could count upon help from Ministers. This was equivalent to saying that the Government would not take the initiative, but would acquiesce in whatever the House of Commons should vote for. Mr. Bismarck added nothing of value to the conference, and he gets a rap from the *Economist* for not having an opinion upon a subject that he has been studying for at least 15 years, with rare qualifications for reaching a sound conclusion. On the other side of the Channel, a volume of some 300 pages has been issued by M. Alphonse Allard, a well-known banker, containing an essay on his own in favor of bimetallism, with observations upon it by Frédéric Passy, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, Levasseur, Germain, and Léon Say, followed by an essay from the pen of Émile de Laveleye, Professor in the University of Liège. The arguments of Allard and of Prof. Laveleye consist merely of the old chaff threshed over. The latter's state of mind may be inferred from the following hopeful paragraph. After referring to a volunteer monetary conference to be held at Paris in September next for the purpose of organizing a bimetallic propaganda, he says:

"It is possible that political crises may divert public attention from the monetary crisis, never closely the latter has fastened itself; it will depend upon the United States to pose the solution which it offered to Europe in 1878 and in 1881, and which the majority in that country are always in favor of; it may suspend the coinage of silver decreed by the United States bill, and sell in the London market for 500,000,000 francs of the white metal, and

the commercial world will then see what the single gold standard will cost."

The obvious suggestion of M. de Laveleye is, that there would be such a tremendous fall in the price of silver that all nations would be terrified to the point of adopting bimetallism. The objections to this project are that the majority of people in this country are not in favor of selling their goods below cost, and it is not clear that the London market would be terrified by the prospect of getting silver at the price of copper or zinc. We doubt if the experiment would succeed, even though the white metal should become so cheap that John Bull could supply all his workhouses with silver spoons. A course which depends upon such futile expedients (and M. de Laveleye distinctly says that it will depend upon this one) cannot have very much backing anywhere. It certainly has little from the recognized economists of France. Messrs. Passy, Leroy-Beaulieu, Levasseur, and Germain are wholly opposed to the contentions of M. Allard, and do not even admit his fundamental position that a crisis exists. Still less do they admit that it has been caused by the decline in the price of silver; nor do they concede that demonetization has caused the decline in the price of silver. M. Léon Say did not enter into these questions at all, but confined himself to a discussion of the advantages which bimetallism gives to the "debtor class," which he thought the French Government might properly favor—a thesis which M. Leroy-Beaulieu considered fraught with "grave moral objections."

It becomes clear, with fuller accounts of the debate in the Cortes, that the signal defeat of the attempt of the Spanish protectionists to increase the duties on cereals was not so much a rebuke to protectionism as to political intriguing. Cánovas had pushed on the measure in the hope of splitting the Liberals on the issue, and so of regaining power himself. His success was so great as to be fatal. Among the Liberal dissidents whom he won over was Martos, President of the Chamber of Deputies, and, by virtue of that office, a member of the Administration. With glaring impropriety, the latter openly opposed his colleagues, although refusing to resign his office. It was very largely resentment at such political indiscretion, to call it by no harsher name, and at the evident purpose to wreck the party, that led even the protectionist Liberals either to give active support to Sagasta, or to refrain from voting for a bill which they were known to favor. It was consequently beaten by more than three to one. Yet, as we have said, it was not a clear defeat of the protectionist measure on its merits. The defeat would undoubtedly have come, even without the blundering of Martos, though it would then only have meant an endorsement of Sagasta's position as respects the bill. That was a refusal to commit himself as to the absolute merits of the bill, but a stout contention that at least nothing must be done in contravention of existing commercial treaties. These

will expire in 1892, he said; let us wait till then before doing anything. If it shall then seem best not to renew them, and to adopt a more protective tariff, we can do so without any suspicion of bad faith towards the countries with which we are now in treaty relations.

Meanwhile, the efforts of Sagasta to reunite his divided followers do not appear thus far to have been successful. The dissidents stand out, and do not seem willing to treat on any fair terms. Sagasta's strongest hope is to secure a coalition which will enable him to put through his bill for granting universal suffrage, and to gain the prestige sure to attach to the Minister obtaining the enactment of that popular measure. He may fail in this, but he has the whip hand in any case. He may refuse to call the Cortes together again at all. The present Cortes was elected in 1886, and has but one more legal session. A clause in the Constitution gives the Ministry power to extend for a year the budget last voted, in case the Cortes does not pass a new one, and Sagasta may do this as a last resort. It is more likely, however, that a truce will be patched up, so that a vote may be had on the Suffrage Bill, and authority be given for the conversion of the debt and the placing of a new loan, so long talked of and so desperately needed.

The "scramble for Africa" still continues. According to an announcement in the *London Times* of May 29, a number of leading financiers of England and the Cape are about to apply for a charter for a commercial company to take possession of the Central Zambesi Basin. The fact that a large part of this territory, which is defined as lying "between the south end of Tanganyika, the west shores of Nyassa, the southern boundaries of the Congo Free State, and the western and eastern possessions of Portugal, down to the frontiers of the Bechuanaland protectorate," is already claimed by Portugal, does not seem to present any serious difficulty. Access to this region will be obtained by a railway from the Cape frontier to the Zambesi, for which the money is now available. It is the intention of the directors of this new enterprise, in which there is a "certain philanthropic element," to exclude rigidly both alcohol and firearms from their dominions. The very appropriate name of Livingstonia has been suggested for the new State, as it includes the region in which the great explorer spent the greater part of his active life and made his most important discoveries. The African Lakes Company, which, though established originally simply to aid the Scotch missions on the Shiré Highlands and Lake Nyassa, has developed a considerable trade in these regions and accordingly excited the bitter hostility of the Arabs, will be merged in the new company. When missionary effort and commercial enterprise, as in this case, go hand in hand, the best results can be confidently looked for in developing the resources of the country, in putting down the slave trade, and in civilizing the negro.

THE NEW PRISON LAW.

THERE was reason to hope, at one time during the last session of the New York Legislature, that the good fortune which justifies the optimism of Americans was about to be signally illustrated. A bill for the treatment of convicts had been prepared by most competent hands; it contained nearly all those provisions which the most intelligent reformers were united in regarding as essential, and, having passed safely through committee, it seemed as if in some mysterious way it might become law without serious opposition. At the last moment, however, the representatives of the forces which have brought our prisons into their present state of demoralization, rallied, and a number of amendments were thrust into the bill, with the result of considerably increasing the difficulties of its application. Yet so much that is good was left substantially untouched, that the measure as a whole must be regarded as an immense step in advance; and although the expense of conducting the prisons will be unnecessarily increased by some disregard of economic principles, the convicts themselves may now be dealt with in conformity with the lessons of reason and experience. It is perhaps not too much to say that, whereas the prison legislation of New York prior to the passage of this act was disgraceful to a civilized community, it is now in advance of that of any other American State.

The credit for this reform is primarily due to Superintendent Brockway of the Elmira Reformatory more than to any other individual. He may be said to have furnished the ideas contained in the bill, while the admirable legal form in which the measure appears—it being really a codification of all the existing statutes upon the subject—is the work of Prof. Collin of Cornell University. Of members of the Legislature, Senator Fasset and Assemblyman Bush earned honorable distinction for their determination that the affairs of the prisons should be regulated in a statesmanlike fashion, and for the success with which the matter was carried through. Of defunct legislatures, *nil nisi malum* is now the customary mode of speech; but it seems no more than just to admit that the majority of our representatives must have perceived that the interests involved were too important to be made longer the sport of demagogues, and that they not ungraciously consented to resign themselves to intelligent guidance.

The great principle advocated by modern penologists is that of discrimination and classification among convicts. A first offence is regarded as a very different matter from a later one. In the case of most crimes against property, the character of the punishment is not clearly before the mind of the offender before he has had a prison experience; but everything should be done to make him desire that this experience should not be continued. Repeated short sentences are worse than useless, while long sentences with a material abatement for good behavior are found very efficacious. The latter feature has for some years been established in our law, but

the system is still too rigid, and cannot be adapted to the requirements of particular cases. In order to meet those requirements, and with a view to presenting the most cogent motives for reform, what is known as the indeterminate sentence has been devised, with which may be combined the release upon parole, and these devices constitute the most important features of the new law. The first few months after his discharge from prison constitute the critical period for the convict who has any disposition to reform, and every influence should be exerted to set him and keep him at honest labor. He should not be turned loose, as at present, to shift for himself and drift back to his old haunts and associates, but should be kept in prison until his friends or the authorities have found work for him. Withal he should feel that he is under supervision, that the grip of the law is only relaxed, not released, and that if he falls back into crime, he will be summarily returned to prison.

At the risk of some obscurity, we condense the details of the principal changes made by the new law, as follows: Henceforth, whenever a male over sixteen is convicted of a State-prison offence punishable for a term to be fixed by the court between maximum and minimum limits, the sentence shall be for an indeterminate period within those limits. For example, a certain felony is now punishable by imprisonment for not less than two nor more than ten years. Prior to the passage of this act the court had to specify the precise number of years of confinement. It will do so no longer, but will adopt the language of the statute, and sentence the felon "for not less than two nor more than ten years." The precise limit is eventually determined by a board composed of the Superintendent of State Prisons, the warden, the chaplain, the physician, and the principal keeper. Before this board a prisoner who has served his minimum term may appear and apply for release upon parole or absolutely, but no other person may apply in his behalf. If the "biographical sketch" of the prisoner, which is to be fully and carefully kept, seems to the board to justify such action, they may release the prisoner upon parole, which means that he shall no longer be imprisoned, but shall remain in the legal custody of the warden until the expiration of the maximum period of his sentence, or until he is absolutely discharged. If there is reasonable cause to believe that the paroled prisoner has lapsed or is about to lapse into criminal ways or company, any member of the board may rearrest him and imprison him for the period of his unexpired maximum term. Any paroled prisoner may be absolutely discharged by the board.

All prisoners are to be classified in three grades. In the first grade are placed all those appearing to be corrigible and likely to maintain themselves by honest industry after their discharge. The second grade includes the incorrigible, who are nevertheless able to work and reasonably obedient to prison discipline, while the totally incorrigible and refractory element falls into the third grade. The labor of prisoners of the first grade is to be directed primarily to fitting them to maintain themselves by honest

industry, even though no useful or salable product result from their labor; but, so far as is consistent with this primary objective, productive industry is to be maintained. In the case of prisoners of the second grade the order of these objects is reversed. The act as drafted, proceeded as follows:

"The labor of the prisoners of the third grade shall be directed solely to the production of the greatest amount and value of useful or salable products."

It now reads:

"The labor of the prisoners of the third grade shall be directed solely to such exercise as shall tend to the preservation of health, or to manufacturing without the aid of machinery of such articles as are needed in the public institutions of the State, or such other manual labor as the Superintendent of State Prisons shall direct which shall not compete with free labor."

This is, of course, a concession to the feelings of those who cannot bear that the worst convicts should support themselves but insist that free laborers shall support them. Under this section the third-grade prisoners will probably have the easiest berth but as their number need not be very large we may as well congratulate ourselves that the matter is no worse. No prisoners convicted in United States courts held without the State are hereafter to be received in any of our penal institutions.

The contract system is, of course, not restored, nor is its abolition to be regretted. Both the public-account and the piece-price systems are allowed. The public-account system is that by which the State furnishes machinery and material for the labor of the prisoners and markets the products. Under the piece-price system the materials and machinery may be furnished by private persons who purchase the finished product. No fault is to be found with the provision that the full market rates are to be obtained for the sales, and that no products are to be sold for less than 10 per cent. above the cost of the materials used. Equally harmless is the direction that "diversified lines of industry shall be chosen with a view to 'interfering as little as possible with the same lines of industry carried on by the citizens of the State.'" The bill originally provided that the number of prisoners employed in any manufacture should not be more than 10 per cent. of the number of free laborers employed therein. This percentage was reduced to five, which was probably an immaterial change, and is certainly an unobjectionable compromise.

At this point, however, the protectionist spirit could be no longer repressed. It was necessary, in order to save the bill, to admit amendments that prohibited the employment of any of the prisoners in the penitentiaries, reformatories, and houses of correction in the State at the manufacture of stoves, iron hollow-ware, and boots and shoes; while in the State prisons the number was limited to 100 at shoemaking and the same number in the iron manufactures specified. These amendments, however, do not apply to the manufacture of these articles for the use of the public institutions of the State. These institutions, it is further provided, shall be supplied with all articles commonly require

for their operation out of the products of prison labor so far as such products are available. The prices of such articles are to be fixed by a board, and every institution is to be credited with the amount of its own production. The authorities of the prisons can procure such machinery, tools, and accommodations as they find needful for the purpose of carrying on the industrial education and production prescribed, but materials are to be furnished only by contract after due advertisement.

The only remaining departure to be noted is the payment of wages to well-behaved convicts. The bill originally provided that wages should be paid at an average rate of 10 cents a day, but, as enacted, it reads that the compensation allowed to convicts shall not exceed 10 per cent. of the earnings of the institution in which they are confined. It is not easy to predict what this may amount to, but it will probably be a sufficient sum to furnish a test of the principle involved. These wages are to be varied according to the deserts of the prisoner, to be subject to fines and deductions, and to total forfeiture in case of breach of parole. The proceeds of these fines go to a fund in aid of unfortunate discharged convicts. Prisoners may have the money standing to their credit applied to the aid of their dependent relatives, or to the purchase of books, instruments, and instruction not regularly supplied by the prison. The balance to their credit at the time of their conditional discharge is subject to their draft, approved by the Superintendent; on their absolute discharge, any balance becomes their absolute property.

We should add that all moneys arising from the labor of prisoners are to be deposited in bank subject to the draft of the prison authorities. At present the income of the prisons is turned into the State treasury, and can only be applied to prison uses by State appropriation. This is not only awkward bookkeeping, but it imperils the continuity of prison administration by making it dependent on State action. The appropriations now, being of very large sums, are ignorantly condemned and reduced, while under the new system they will be small and may even disappear. There will be less opportunity and less temptation to intermeddle andinker, and there seems to be a reasonable prospect that the present solution of our difficulties will be a permanent one. The "piece-price" plan also tends to enable the prisons to conduct their operations without waiting for the Legislature to assist them.

It is probable that at the next session there will be a renewal of the attack led this year by the manufacturers of stoves and shoes, with the purpose of still further "restricting the competition of convict with free labor," but persons familiar with the situation are confident that the other features of the law will not be disturbed. We incline to the opinion that the new system is elastic enough to admit of some further concessions to particular industries without much impairing its usefulness. Some of its provisions may be startling to those to whom they are unfamiliar, but we believe that they have all sa-

tisfactorily stood the test of experience. Of course, incompetent and corrupt officers can prevent the success of any system, but the history of our prisons has not been such as to make this danger formidable. The State may feel that it has at last fairly attempted to do its duty by the most miserable class of its citizens. Our Legislatures pass few measures that are of so truly a scientific character as this, and the fact that such a measure can be passed by the Legislature of the State of New York is, if not quite sufficient to justify an exalted State pride, at least good reason for not despairing of the republic.

THE EVOLUTION OF PARTY REMOVALS.

FOR an adequate consideration of the first of the two inquiries started by Senator Edmunds in the *Forum* for June, it must be borne in mind how distinct is the power of removal from the power of appointment, even though it is the rule of the Supreme Court that the President's power of removal comes from the power of appointment, being incident thereto, rather than from his power and duty "to take care that the laws be faithfully executed." The Civil-Service Law of 1883 relates solely to appointments. It does not attempt directly to control removals, although its effort is to take away the incentive to removal by requiring a competitive examination of a small class of inferior officers and employees. It only relates to a class of inferior officers appointed by a head of a department, or employees appointed by such an inferior officer as a collector of customs or a postmaster. What Bishop Potter said in his centennial sermon touched a larger topic, which is the exercise by the President of the power to remove any agent of the Federal Government, whether a constitutional officer, or an inferior officer appointed by a head of a department, or a person employed by an inferior officer.

In considering removals, it will be well, first, to make a note of change and progress in legislative opinion within the last hundred years.

The Federal Constitution makes no mention of executive power to remove any officers whatsoever. As the tenure of judicial officers alone is during good behavior, the commissions of all other officers, since the foundation of the Government and down to 1867, have declared that they held their offices during the pleasure of the President. During the first year of the Government, and when a bill to organize the Department of Foreign Affairs was under consideration in Congress, there was learned discussion of the question whether the power of removal by the Executive could be abridged by Congress, and the final vote, which was very close, declared in the negative in cases where the power to appoint was not subject to legislative review. It is to be inferred that this vote was largely influenced by the confidence reposed in President Washington.

When Monroe was recalled from France by Washington, the Republicans of that period asked for the reasons, which were re-

fused by Washington, and then they insisted that the President could not remove without "cause," and was in duty bound to declare the cause. This the Federalists denied. But when in 1801 Jefferson was in power, the Republicans had plenty of reasons for removing Federalists who were in office, but denied that the President was in duty bound to declare them to the Senate. Jefferson proclaimed vacant all civil offices that had been filled by Adams after the result of the election was surely known. Jefferson declared that Federalist district attorneys and marshals should be removed, because they controlled access to the courts. The Superintendent of Public Stores was removed because he was a Federalist. Had Washington or Adams and the Federalists, when in power, announced the theory and duty of making removals for opinion's sake that Jefferson announced in 1801, the Jeffersonian Republicans of the day would have denounced Washington, Adams, and the Federalists as men of monarchical tendencies and Anglicans, endeavoring to make the American President like a European sovereign. In a dozen years or less the Federalists and Republicans changed sides so far as concerned removal from office for opinion's sake.

Thus stood the tenure of all civil officers excepting judicial officers until 1820, when Congress made the term of certain "inferior officers" of the Treasury four years. It was done during the term of Monroe. That four years' law covered collectors, naval officers, surveyors, and district attorneys. But the real vice of it was in the declaration by Congress that all the officers whose term is made four years "shall be removable from office at pleasure." There is the real origin of "the spoils system." Some five years afterwards, and during the term of John Quincy Adams, the Senate appointed a committee to inquire and report on the exercise by the President of the power of removal. Prominent Democrats like Van Buren and Benton were appointed on this committee. The action of the Senate clearly indicates that nearly three-fourths of a century ago the spoils system existed and had taken on alarming proportions. The Senate Committee reported a variety of bills touching the matters referred to them, and, among others, a bill requiring the President, making a removal, to declare to the Senate his reasons therefor. It is significant that Van Buren voted to report this bill, which, however, Congress did not enact into a law. It was the first Congressional effort to remedy the evil of party removals.

Three years after, Jackson defeated John Quincy Adams by 178 electoral votes against 83. After the result of that bitter struggle became known, Adams sent to the Senate nominations which the Senate refused to confirm expressly and solely upon the ground that it was for Jackson and the Democracy to fill such vacancies. The struggle out of which Jackson emerged as President was so bitter, the warfare between himself as President and the United States Bank was so relentless, the question of removing the deposits so enraged the Whigs, that Jackson

made a wholesale massacre of the civil service to fill the offices with those who were of his way of thinking. Van Buren's term was substantially a continuation of Jackson's two terms. Then came Harrison's election and death and the disturbances and removals from office caused by the defection of Tyler from the Whig party. By the end of Tyler's term the spoils system had become well established. Polk recognized it in 1845; so did Taylor and Fillmore during the next Presidential term. Pierce in 1853 followed on in the same line, and four years later Buchanan pillaged his own camp by vindictive removal of Democrats simply because they were friends of Pierce. In 1861 Lincoln had a plausible excuse in the condition of political affairs, growing out of the civil war, for a clean sweep of every Democrat from office, and when he died in 1865 the defection of Andrew Johnson from the Republican party, like the defection of John Tyler from the Whig party, was held to create especial reason for executive removals.

Out of this controversy inside the Republican party came the Tenure-of-Office Act, which declared that heads of departments should hold office during the term of the President by whom they had been appointed, and for one month thereafter, subject only to removal with the consent of the Senate; and also that every person holding any civil office to which he had been appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and who had become duly qualified to act therein, should be entitled to hold such office till a successor should have been in like manner appointed and duly qualified. The purpose of that legislation was to change the doctrine and practice of the Government since 1789, by which removal from office was effected at the mere discretion of the President. That legislation created a tenure of office which could not be terminated except by the concurrence of the President and the Senate in the appointment of a successor to the incumbent and his actual induction into office. The President could not without the consent of the Senate remove even a member of his Cabinet. Congress was Republican at the time of the legislation, but hostile to Andrew Johnson, or else such legislation never would have found place upon the statute-book.

When Grant came to power in 1869, he found a friendly Senate which did not interfere with his removals, nor did the Senate interfere with removals by Hayes, or Garfield, or Arthur. It may be fairly said that the evils of the spoils system culminated under Andrew Johnson and Grant. Notwithstanding appearances to the contrary, we agree with Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte, in his recent Baltimore address, that the civil service has improved in recent years, and that its evolution is now of an encouraging type. In order to appreciate the progress made we must compare periods *en bloc*, and we shall find that there has been nothing in the last fifteen years so bad as the condition of the service in Gen. Grant's second term. With the present quickened public opinion, it is hardly possible that it should ever be so bad again.

CONDEMNED WITHOUT A HEARING.

THE wholesale removals of postmasters serving four years' terms having provoked severe criticism, the Department gave out the explanation that such removals were made upon "charges." The *Evening Post* thereupon instructed its Washington correspondent to apply to the head of the Post-office Department for information as to the character of these charges—notably in the cases of Postmaster Charles Brewer, at Vineland, N. J., and Mrs. Mary L. Clay, Postmistress at Huntsville, Ala. The chief clerk of Postmaster-General Wanamaker informed the correspondent that "it is not the custom of the Department to give out the reports of special agents, or to make any statements respecting their contents to the public, and there is no prospect that there will be any change in this usage. On the contrary," adds the correspondent, "the Post-office officials who have charge of these matters very flatly say that no information will be furnished in any instance as to the nature of the report of a special agent, except that it might be fairly presumed that, where an agent had reported upon a case and there was a removal, the removal was for cause. An investigation was made of the Vineland Post-office because of charges that had been made, the inspector reported, and the Postmaster was removed. So much and no more will the Post-office officials say as to this case." Concerning the Huntsville case, the correspondent reports:

"As to Mrs. Mary L. Clay, the Postmaster at Huntsville, Ala., who has been removed, the statement is officially made that her resignation is asked for because of the report of a special agent adverse to her, and that, as she failed to resign, she was removed. It is alleged that there were complaints from patrons of the Post-office in addition to the report of the special agent, but what those complaints were cannot be learned here. When the request for her resignation was received, Mrs. Clay, instead of forwarding it, wrote to the Postmaster-General asking him the nature of the charges and the author of them—a request which would seem to be quite human. The answer of the Department to the request of this lady for information as to what charges had been made against her was a notification of removal from office."

"The intimation is very flatly made at the Department, if not in so many words," says the correspondent, "that it will be useless for persons, whether they wish to satisfy their own curiosity, or desire to make political capital of the information, to endeavor to ascertain the contents or the nature of the reports of special agents in given cases. These reports, it is maintained, are only for the personal information of the Postmaster-General; they are in no sense public property. If there is to be a policy of removal upon charges, while the pretended rule as to four years in office is to be observed, the charges are evidently to be made in a star-chamber inquiry, into which the public is not to be invited."

We have very positive views as to the justice of the policy thus adopted by the Harrison Administration, but, to avoid any accusation of prejudice, we prefer to adopt as our own the views as to the same policy when pursued by the Cleveland Administration which were expressed by Benjamin Harrison, then United States Senator from

Indiana, in a speech delivered in the Senate on the 26th of March, 1886. It was during the debate on the question whether the President could be forced by the Senate to furnish the papers embodying the "charges" upon which officials had been removed—a debate, Gen. Harrison said in opening his speech, which "will be regarded, I think as among the great historical debates which have taken place in this body." After a comparatively brief reference to "the mere legal and constitutional questions which are presented here," Gen. Harrison proceeded to "look a little outside" of them, and to discuss the "administrative policy inaugurated by this Administration, a policy that is without precedent, and that will be without imitation—a policy of stimulating and receiving secret charges against the reputation of men, *ay, as I shall show presently, not only against the reputation of men, but against the reputation of women*; of denying to the accused any access to or knowledge of the charges, and of acting upon those charges in the dark."

"What was the attitude in which we found ourselves when we assembled here in December?" asked Gen. Harrison, and thus answered his question: "In my own State the Republicans who were in office were willing, at the mere suggestion of the Administration, to step out. Hundreds of them besides those who took that course, would have placed their resignations in the hands of the Administration but for the fact that *their confidence was betrayed by the suggestion that, if they had discharged their public duties conscientiously and well, they might hold their offices until the end of their terms*. Such was the proclamation. I went through all this country. The President of the United States repeatedly put himself under pledge in favor of such policy. It went through all the land to those Republicans in office who had a fragment large or small, of a legal term to serve, that if they had discharged their duties faithfully and honestly, they would not be disturbed in serving out the residue of their terms. I was said that mere difference in political opinion should not operate against the officer. It was said that if he had not made himself an indecent partisan, the fact that he was a Republican should not be taken to his advantage or in order to deprive him of his office."

"It has turned out," Gen. Harrison continued, "that it was a deceptive feast to which these gentlemen were invited. It was almost as full of deception and almost as fatal in its results, as some of those feasts of old story to which men were invited for the purpose of assassination." Gen. Harrison next described in detail the outrageous manner in which postmasters had been removed by the Cleveland Administration upon the allegation that "charges" had been made against their official conduct and then had been refused all information as to the character of these charges. Turning to his Democratic colleagues, he said: "Will you unite here in support of a proposition which denies to a Republican removed knowledge of the charges that are

filed against him in a public department of this Government? I do not believe there is a Senator on that side of the chamber (if there is one, I know it is not my colleague) who will rise and vindicate that course of administration. I know he reprobrates it; I know every impulse of his heart cries out against it; I know he despises it, because he has been trained, in his profession and in his intercourse with men, to believe in the great doctrine that an accused should have the right to know of what he is accused, and to be heard in his defence."

Gen. Harrison proceeded to offer a "prayer," with the quotation of which we conclude this article:

"I do lift up a hearty prayer that we may never have a President who will not either pursue, and compel his Cabinet advisers to pursue, the civil-service policy pure and simple and upon a just basis, allowing men accused to be heard, and deciding against them only upon competent proof and fairly—either have that kind of a civil service, or, for God's sake, let us have that other frank and bold, if brutal, method of turning men and women out simply for political opinion. Let us have one or the other."

THE SILVER-LEAD CONTROVERSY.

THE documents submitted to the Secretary of the Treasury for and against a reversal of the existing rule of the Department, that an ore must be classified for the assessment of duties according to its component of chief value, have been printed. They consist of arguments, affidavits, and statements of fact from the parties in interest, their counsel, and metallurgists. The whole mass constitutes an object-lesson in tariffs of very great value. There is scarcely anything in the literature of the subject which does not here find its appropriate practical illustration.

To begin at the beginning, we find that Congress undertook in 1883, as often before, to regulate the profits of a large number of trades, including that of lead-mining and smelting, as well as the manufacture of lead pipe, sheets, shot, etc., and of white lead. To do this with any approach to fairness, if such an attempt can ever be fair, would require such wisdom as has never been vouchsafed to mortals, conjoined with a spirit of disinterestedness which has never been found in any legislative body. As a matter of fact, this particular bill did not have the advantages of such wisdom and disinterestedness as the Congress of 1883 may have been blessed with, because it was thrown together in a conference committee in great haste, and with a total disregard of the votes that had been previously taken in the two houses. This circumstance detracts from the value of the testimony of Mr. L. E. Holden (p. 56), who submits a sworn statement that he was present during that entire session of Congress, and that he "knows it was not the intent of the friends of the law that lead in ores, or in any other form, should be admitted free of duty." Inasmuch as the conference committee that reported the measure which finally passed, went counter to the votes of both houses, Mr. Holden's knowledge of the intent of the friends of the law must be of the slightest. As little can be inferred from

his mere presence at Washington city during the whole session.

The decision of the Treasury Department in 1880, during Secretary Sherman's term, that ores should be classified for duty according to the component of chief value, except where Congress had otherwise provided, was examined by the Judiciary Committee of the Senate last July under an instruction of the Senate. The report was made by Mr. Edmunds, and appears to have been unanimously concurred in, and, as an argument on a point of law, is perfectly convincing. It consists of two simple theses: (1) that these silver-lead ores were actually imported during and before 1883, and that Congress must have had knowledge of the fact, as well as of the ruling of the Treasury Department above mentioned; (2) that in two special cases of mixed ores, viz., copper and nickel, Congress provided that a duty should be levied on the amount of pure copper, or pure nickel, contained therein, but made no such provision as to any mixture of lead ore with any other metal. The conclusion is irresistible, that if Congress had intended to change the practice prevailing in the commercial world, and confirmed by the Treasury ruling, it would have used words appropriate to that end, as it did in the case of copper and nickel. Mr. Edmunds concluded his report thus: "The Committee is of opinion, therefore, that the class of ores mentioned are not dutiable under existing laws."

The contention on the other side is threefold: First, that they are dutiable under existing law; second, that the assays at the Mexican frontier are hasty and incorrect, and that ores are smuggled in as silver ores, although containing more lead value than silver value; third, that these ores ought to be made dutiable by Treasury order, whether Congress made them so or not. This last was the unvarnished precept of Senator Wolcott, whose presence at the hearing was an impertinence and a scandal. "The question," said Mr. Wolcott, "is whether you [Mr. Secretary of the Treasury] will protect the lead product of the United States"—not whether Congress has done so, not whether the means adopted by Congress are adequate, not whether the admission of Mexican fluxing ores might not be one means of protecting the lead product of the United States (as Mr. August R. Meyer strongly contended that it was), but whether the Secretary of the Treasury for the time being will impose a tax upon the people on his own motion.

How far this idea has taken possession of people presumably sane in other matters may be inferred from the character of the affidavits submitted. Most of these are drawn up to prove that lead-mining in the United States is in danger of extinction by reason of the importation of these Mexican ores, although the statistics prove the contrary—as though that fact, if true, could have any bearing on the question under debate, which is whether Congress did, in 1883, enact that these ores should be dutiable. It is certain that Congress did enact that silver ores should come in free. A large part of the argument of the complainants went to show that silver-mining in this country

would be disastrously affected if these particular ores should continue to come in free. Why did they not ask the Secretary to rule that any ore containing silver should be dutiable, or that silver bullion should be dutiable? Surely nothing can be worse for silver-mining than to admit pure silver free of duty. Why advance any arguments on this head unless they intended that the Secretary should fix the duties regardless of the law? Naturally the wages question held high rank in the argument. Mr. J. F. Woodman made affidavit, among other things, that

"The continuance of the present free importation of foreign lead ores will destroy the present lead-mining industry in this country, or enforce a reduction of the miners' wages to the level of wages in Mexico."

This phrase seems to have been stereotyped, for we find the same identical words repeated in the affidavits of Lemuel E. Colbath, Charles Read, John S. Scott, A. Hanauer, Joseph R. Walker, William A. Clark, and Joseph K. Clark, while Mr. Dennis Sheedy expands them to half a page, giving us the lineage of the present inhabitants of Mexico, and showing the degraded state of the peons of that country, in which he sees the future destiny of the American miner unless the Secretary of the Treasury shall make the right kind of a law for us. There are plenty of data for contradicting this statement. For example, the *Sun* of Monday has a letter from Silver City, New Mexico, taking the side of the complainants in this case, but the writer naively remarks:

"Notwithstanding the fact that hundreds of miners have been thrown out of employment in the copper and lead mines, there are more miners now at work in New Mexico than at any previous time in the history of the Territory, and they are receiving good wages."

Of the professional testimony offered, that of Prof. Egleston of Columbia College was by much the clearest and most incisive, going wholly to the point that "if a mineral should contain two metals, one of which could and the other could not be extracted with profit, the substance would be termed an ore of that metal whose value determined its working," and that in fact these Mexican ores were worked primarily for silver, the lead being a by-product.

We have said that this controversy is a valuable object-lesson in tariff discussions. Here are two industries, or rather two branches of a single industry, each having a large invested capital, and each employing large numbers of men and supporting thousands of families. The Government is asked to tear one of them up by the roots and bring dismay and ruin upon employers and employed. For what reason? In order to distribute the proceeds of the national industry in a certain way; to make the profits of certain other people more satisfactory. This is socialism of the rankest description. It is called protection, but, whether it is rightly called so or not, it is an attempt to make one man rich and another man poor by—we had almost said by act of Congress, but in this case it is by the act of a subordinate official. The principle, however, is the same. Whether by Congress or by the Secretary, it is an attempted spolia-

tion, repugnant to the sense of justice and to the spirit of free institutions. The difference between such an act done by Congress and the same done by the Secretary, although the economical results are the same, goes, however, to the very root of representative government.

DECLINE OF THE NEWPORT SEASON.

It is generally asserted, and does not seem to be very positively denied, that Newport will be neither so full nor so gay this year as some people could desire. There are more houses to let, and they do not let so well; there is to be less going on, fewer public entertainments, more people absent in Europe, etc., etc. To hotel-keepers, cab-drivers, owners of houses who expect to live during the winter on the rent they get from their Newport estates in the summer, all this is depressing; and the most melancholy thing about it is, that the dulness seems to be increasing instead of diminishing. It threatens to be worse this year than it was last year, although last year it seemed worse than the year before; and, worse than all, the future holds out no definite promise of revival. The old Newport "season," when public gayety was kept up day after day and night after night, is believed by many people to be a thing of the past. It is not that Newport itself is in a decline. It never had so many fine houses nor so many miles of good roads. With these and its Casino and new bathing-houses, it has really doubled its attractions within a few years. It continues to be, as it always has been, the only seaside watering-place of the first class in the United States. The explanation must be found in some other cause. The "season" is said to have fallen off from a variety of causes not redounding in any way to the discredit of Newport. In the first place, fashionable people go more and more to Europe—the numbers going this year are larger than ever before; then, two or three rival "resorts" have come into favor near by, especially Narragansett Pier, where people who want to have continual "hops" go; then, the times are bad, and no new set of large fortunes has been made recently.

No doubt there is something in these explanations; but do they, after all, explain why the season has declined while Newport itself has become more and more attractive? There are, even with all allowances made, as has just been said, many more people, and many more rich people, in Newport than there were twenty years ago. It is not a deserted village, but a thriving and prosperous town—thriving and prosperous chiefly through its summer inhabitants. If these habitués liked to keep up the old season as it was in its prime, nothing could prevent them—certainly not the fact that there were other habitués in other places doing the same thing. Nor would the poverty of those who could not come deter them, nor the absence of those in Europe. Those who remember Newport in the old days of the Ocean House hops know very well that it has material in it now for hopping and other forms of revelry of which the "society

people" of the last generation knew nothing.

The causes that have been mentioned will not account for the phenomenon, which is that the people who used to carry on the "season," or their present representatives, do not care to do so as much as they did. The cause must be found in some peculiarity of the season itself, which has gradually led to its falling into disfavor, or else some change in the people who created it, or both.

We venture to suggest that the cause in the season itself which leads to this result is that it was an essentially vulgar and disgusting institution, which, unless the world was to grow increasingly vulgar and disgusting, was doomed to an early decay. It consisted simply and solely of a number of people, united by no other tie than that they could afford it, going to a seaside place, and, instead of spending their time in the pursuit of health and pleasure, wasting it in giving their badly brought-up daughters and sons a "good time" in the way of dancing, driving, and flirting. The elders of course got very little out of the season. The father was apt to be hard at work in New York most of the summer, earning a living; the mothers drove or gossiped (a great many of the leading matrons made their headquarters on a hotel piazza), and the young people had their fling; that is, they danced night after night in gas-heated rooms, privately if they must, publicly in the hotel "corridor" if possible.

In the last twenty or thirty years immense changes have come over the lives and pleasures of well-to-do Americans. Notwithstanding all the provincialism we see in some directions, in the pleasures of "society" there has been a great advance in good sense and cosmopolitanism. The taste for outdoor sports has made a summer season devoted to dancing seem just as silly to Americans as it always did to other people. Summer occupations have become diversified. Where sitting on a piazza or parading a corridor used to mark the height of social attainment, these pursuits have come to seem more or less like a bore. The increase of private fortunes has also had an indirect effect. The plutocrats have gradually more and more given up trying to pretend that they liked equality, and the give-and-take of democratic hotel life, and have drawn off into their cottages—villas they call them now—and taken a good deal of satisfaction in a reserve and withdrawal from the vulgar herd of resorters which the latter perfectly well understand. No one not fortified by great wealth could do these things. A generation ago they would have been looked upon as snobbish. Now they are simply aristocratic or exclusive. The very wealthy are a law to themselves. They lead such lives in summer as they please, season or no season, and for their example a host of people less rich may well be thankful.

Of course, the season will never be wholly extinguished. There will, in Newport and elsewhere, always be a time when the hotels are full, when there are most turn-outs to be seen, when there is summer dancing; but the great discovery has been made that the leaders

of fashion no longer regard the competition of display in clothes on hotel piazzas as the sum and substance of human happiness, and the followers of fashion are very quick to echo the discovery. Summer life in the last generation has become much more private. Let the hotel-keepers and hack-drivers and purveyors of amusement by contract at so much a head, regret it; we cannot. To our minds the old season was a vulgar caricature of real pleasure-seeking; and if it has gone, as the late Mr. Carlyle would have said, to the Mother of dead dogs, or, as others insist, to Narragansett Pier, it does not mean that Newport is in a decline, but that the "season" has been found out to be an imposture which no civilized or civilizable country could long endure.

NOTES IN THE SOUTH OF IRELAND.

KILKEE, CO. CLARE, May 26, 1889.

WITH the supreme attractions before them of the oldest and most civilized countries in the world, it is little wonder that, as a rule, American visitors landing at Queenstown pass rapidly across Ireland. We have nothing in art or architecture to detain the traveller. For ourselves there is much of deep interest in both, but to be fully appreciated they must be viewed in a spirit born of intimate acquaintance with the country and her history. Our chief associations with English literature are almost centred round the tombs of Swift and Stella in St. Patrick's; Rev. Charles Wolfe's grave in a seldom visited graveyard, a mile from Queenstown; Kilcolman, and other spots in the County of Cork connected with Spenser; and Goldsmith's birthplace and deserted village in Longford. The harrow of misrule and depression has left Ireland rather bare. The living institutions most worthy of a visit are some under the Catholic Church—those splendid establishments managed by religious orders, such as Artane and Glencree, near Dublin, and the Convent of the Good Shepherd and Saint Raphael's Blind Asylum in Cork, and others scattered all over the length and breadth of the land, where devoted men and women, in accordance with Catholic ideas, are doing so much for the Irish *renaissance*, which has undoubtedly begun. We Protestants cannot work through such means; our field of usefulness here is at present necessarily narrow—we ourselves have done much to restrict it. Something may be effected when we more fully realize that in philanthropic labors we cannot do much better than rival the spirit of our Catholic fellow-countrymen.

Since leaving Dublin a fortnight ago, I have been longing that my friends abroad could see Ireland in this year's spring attire. The weather has been perfect. Never have I seen more tender green on field and wood, never here bluer seas and skies, or lovelier shadows chasing each other over the mountain sides. Perhaps the hawthorn is not so luxuriant as last year's; but the primroses are massed along the hedgerows, daisies and cowslips and buttercups carpet the pastures and meadows, and as for the furze, it is a blaze of glory, lighting up the hills and framing the fields in gold. We are rather jealous for the reputation of Ireland, owing to visitors so often deriving their impressions of the country from Killarney. So far as nature goes, Killarney is in fine weather a heaven upon earth; but man has done much to mar the place. Not even in the Bernese Oberland is there a more exasperating system of tolls, beggary, and wheedling. The hotels

are dear (at least according to our standard), and the tips and extras connected with the hire of boats and carriages are endless. Moreover, the shores of the lakes are strictly preserved. You cannot walk and ride freely there as in the English Lake district. You have to pay for entrance to every demesne and every beautiful spot. Let us hope that under home rule the proprietors may be bought up and the place nationalized. For the present it remains a scandal and a shame to Ireland. Perhaps you do not perceive this as clearly as we do. You generally visit Killarney with purses undepleted by travel, with "American ideas" of the value of money, and inexperienced as to the principles on which the most enjoyable tourist resorts in Europe are run.

Glengarriff, Killarney, Dublin, perhaps a day in the County of Wicklow, Belfast, and the Giant's Causeway, are upon the whole, for a short tour in Ireland, the best selection of places to visit. This usual programme might, however, be considerably improved. Leaving Killarney early in the morning for Dublin, the main interest ending at Limerick Junction, let the tourist there express his heavy baggage and take a train for Waterford, the afternoon steamer for New Ross, and rail to Wexford. Next day let him travel by railway to Dublin, stopping at Rathdrum and devoting a few hours to visiting Glendalough. He will really lose no time, and will immensely increase his knowledge of Ireland. The Suir, the Barrow, the Slaney are some of Spenser's rivers. Along their banks, with views of the Galtees, Comeraghs, Knockmealdowns, across the charming County of Wexford, through the Vale of Avoca, under the dark cliffs and woods that surround the "Valley of the Two Lakes," he will see much that is most characteristic of our scenery. The situations of Waterford and New Ross are picturesque. Wexford is perhaps the most interesting town in Ireland. The main street at some points is only twenty feet wide. The principal Anglo-Norman towers and much of the walls remain. The county is full of historical associations. There the invaders first landed. Portions of the castle built upon the site of Dermot Macmurrough's residence still frown upon the surrounding country. At Ferrycarrick the train passes in view of the first castle erected by Fitzstephen; and it is the most remarkable fact in European history that the contest initiated when it was built 700 years ago, remains unsettled to this day. The people of the county, at least in the southern baronies, are some of the finest in Ireland. They alone made a real stand in 1798. Wexford town was held for six weeks. Dreadful atrocities were perpetrated on both sides, but few Protestants were injured who had not, themselves or their families, taken part in the terrible system of oppression under which the country groaned. South of Wexford an old English dialect, almost uninfluenced by Irish, lingered on as a distinct language till our time. At Waterford and Ferrycarrick the visitor will see in full use curious wooden bridges erected 100 years ago by one "Lemuel Cox, a native of Boston."

I have just reversed this tour, and then, having stayed a while in Cork and beside the Shannon, have come on here. I am profoundly impressed with the moral and mental elevation which is going on over the country. The population has been awfully reduced since first I knew these parts. We are still behindhand, but, in the main, an intelligent, well-clothed, self-respecting people have (thanks very much to intercourse with America) replaced the wild and impoverished hordes of the time before the famine. The dream of raising the country

through Protestantism must have passed away from the minds of all but the most prejudiced. The conviction is forced upon many of us extreme Protestants that a pure and elevated system of Catholicism guides the people, and that the fruits are in the main good. This system appears wanting in some of the grit and sterner virtues that characterize the higher Protestant communities; but as a whole I believe our millions will in the next generation favorably compare with the populations of other countries. Outside the land question, ideas of honesty and right and wrong are not shaken. The present is a struggle against a system intolerably dishonest. We cannot wonder, however we may deplore, that many tenants have carried into the contest outside the law the tactics for centuries practised within the law by their opponents. Doubtless many strange economic ideas are afloat, an earnest of those still stranger which will be tried under home rule. The erection of laborers' cottages over the island, mainly in the south and west, by the Poor-Law Boards, upon money lent by the Government, and the letting them (to those who can only be a favored few) generally at rates which will pay but half the interest and sinking fund, is an extraordinary social experiment. There is a distinct effort on the part of the Government, by what Mr. Morley aptly calls "jingling the money-bags," to buy off the people, from the desire for self-government. This effort will fail. But when self-government comes, there will be some murmuring throughout the land for the flesh-pots of Egypt now vouchsafed us in the shape of treasury loans at low interest.

The loneliness and stagnation of this part of the country are almost oppressive, and form a bar to tourist traffic. Ruskinize as we may, man is a gregarious animal; the presence of our fellows enhances the pleasures of natural scenery. The direct means of communication from Limerick here (steamer to Kilrush and car the rest of the way) are practically the same at this season of the year as when first I knew the place forty-seven years ago. The steamers—small, unkempt vessels—ply but once each way daily. We found only some twenty passengers on board; in summer they are more numerous. In fifty miles of the Shannon between Limerick and the sea, there are apparently no means of communication between the opposite shores at any point but by specially hired boat. The steamer stops only thrice on the route. To be taken on board at Foynes on Friday necessitated special arrangement beforehand with the agents at Limerick, and the payment of a smart sum to boatmen. This is, in its way, the finest seaside resort in the United Kingdom, nor have I seen anything to equal it elsewhere. Half a mile of sandy beach, delightful to children, and safe for bathers, is flanked at each end by an iron-bound coast; sheer cliffs and rocks and islands rising to 250 feet open out in endless succession of bay and headland north and south. The Atlantic stretches away without interruption to your shores. Majestic blue rollers, impelled by the prevalent western winds, and unbroken by rock or shallow, dash in white foam and clouds of dazzling spray against rock and headland. Shelving ledges and strata, where shelter can be found from sun and wind at every point of the compass, afford unrivalled opportunities for watching in security the play of ocean. The air, while soft and balmy, is impregnated with saline briskness. The Dugenna reef, which protects the inner strand, left bare by the receding tide, discovers among its rocky terraces deep pools, whose crystal depths, rich with algæ and marine creatures, have a peculiar fascination—a fascination

which has too often retained dreamer and fisherman until cut off by the returning waters, or overwhelmed by tidal wave. The village mainly consists of one and two-storied white-washed stone-built houses. Most visitors bring their families and servants, and hire these "lodges" at a rent of from £5 to £30 per month, according to season and circumstances. The inns are small. There are no hotels, in your sense of the word. The accommodation is somewhat poor, the diet plain but plentiful, the boarding charges being £2 to £3 per week. There is no excitement or life, such as is met at fashionable watering-places. We are glad to read the Dublin papers a day old. Dreary moorlands, swept clear of trees by winter storms, stretch miles inland. The people are interesting. Most of them still speak Irish, and with their better dress and bearing have lost none of their gentle manners. There is much that is primitive and refreshing about the place. The fishermen face the Atlantic in "corrags" made of canvas stretched on a light framework of timber. With a few friends and books, a constant view of cliff and breaker—blue sea, dark headland, white foam—I know of no more soothing place to muse away a holiday and forget the cares of the world.

D. B.

HALEVY'S RECOLLECTIONS.

PARIS, May 27, 1889.

THE authors of the "Belle Hélène," of "Barbe-bleue," and of so many other pieces which were played under the Second Empire with so much success, are now both members of the French Academy. One of them, M. Meilhac, continues to write for the stage, but he writes no more operettas, he writes comedies; he has almost become a moralist. As for M. Halévy, who entered the French Academy before M. Meilhac, he has completely abandoned the writing of plays, and has given to the public a succession of novels, some of which have had a great success. I read on the cover of his new book, "Notes et Souvenirs," this curious list: "L'Abbé Constantin, 133d edition; Criquelette, 71st edition; Madame et Monsieur Cardinal, 49th edition; Les petites Cardinal, 44th edition; Prince, 43d edition." These editions are of 500 copies each; you may easily count the number of the readers of these novels and stories. "L'Abbé Constantin" opened to the author of "La Belle Hélène" the doors of the French Academy. It was read as a novel, it was applauded as a drama; it was illustrated by Mme. Madeleine Lemaire, one of our best aquarellists. It was for more than one season the book of the day, which was found on every lady's table. It is virtuous, it is religious, it is worldly, and it is not dull. The "Petites Cardinal" and the "Famille Cardinal" are an amusing picture of the manners of the class which furnishes the dancers at our great opera: they represent a curious mixture of family and (if I may so call it) irregular life, of order in disorder. The book has had so great a success that the Cardinals have become typical, like the Joseph Prudhomme of Henri Monnier.

By a curious contrast, M. Halévy seems to grow all the more disinclined to come before the public as his popularity increases. His collaboration with M. Meilhac came long ago to an end, and he has never, since they separated, tried to come alone before what we call "le feu de la rampe." He published his first novels in newspapers, in the shape of feuilletons, or in the most popular reviews. He only writes at present in the dearest of all reviews, the *Revue des Lettres et des Arts*, a review which has magnificent illustrations, and is only made for

the prosperous. The 'Notes et Souvenirs' which are before us in the shape of a small volume, came out first in this review. They were made in the years 1871 and 1872; they are fragmentary, disconnected, but they derive much interest from the dramatic occurrences of those eventful years.

Halévy was at Étretat on the 21st of May, 1871, when an official despatch from M. Thiers announced that the troops were reëntering Paris, which had been for two months in the hands of the Commune. He left immediately on the little Fécamp diligence. He tells one of his neighbors on the diligence that he is on his way to Paris:

"To Paris?" says the farmer; "singular idea. Wait at least till they have stopped fighting. . . . You Parisians agitate yourselves too much and have too much curiosity. . . . That is your misfortune. We don't agitate ourselves so in the country. . . . But you, for a melody, a war, a revolution, you put yourselves in such states—you burn your blood. All these things would not have so much importance if people did not occupy themselves with it; for, after all, the days have only twenty-four hours, the months have but thirty days, and the years but twelve months. While it lasts it lasts; and when it is finished it is finished."

M. Halévy is never tired of giving examples of this philosophy of a great part of our people. I had myself, at the same epoch, curious examples of it. I remember going from Versailles to Neuilly, on the day when the Versailles troops took by force the bridge of Neuilly, which was defended with barricades. The noise of the artillery was deafening, but I saw peasants working in their fields not even lifting their heads, looking as calm and quiet as possible.

On his first visit to Paris, when he went along the Seine and saw the ruins of the Tuileries, of the Council of State, of the Great Chancellery of the Legion of Honor, Halévy adds: "I have seen, for ten months, many extraordinary things, but nothing more strange and fantastic than what I saw a moment ago. . . . Between the Pont Royal and the Pont de la Concorde, some people were fishing. I counted them: they were twelve, fishing very leisurely, not caring for what was taking place over their heads, their eyes fixed on their lines, and taking advantage of all these disasters to fish at the forbidden time of the year." The last struggle of the Commune took place in the cemetery of Père Lachaise:

"At each report of a gun on the heights of Montmartre, there was a great fracas in the Rue des Martyrs, but nobody paid any attention to it. There was a crowd in all the shops of the quarter. The cooks were forming in queue at the butchers'. On all sides one heard pleasantries and laughter. . . . What a noise they are making up there at Montmartre. It is the end, said the woman, the *bouquet* [the name given to the finale of grand fireworks]. It will soon be over." Halévy took pleasure in observing the state of mind of the common people, of those who think aloud freely. "I was yesterday in front of a butcher's shop; an old woman was quarrelling with the butcher, who tried to give her too much bone with the meat. . . . 'I thought,' said she, 'that you would become more reasonable after the war. But I see that it will always be the same.'"

It is always the same with many; and history slides over their heads as the wind over the lower strata of the ocean. The Paris of the siege and of the Commune rapidly regained its old aspect.

"We go over the Pont Neuf, and we fall, at the Croix Rouge, on a great fire: a great shop has been burning for twenty-four hours. Close by, the shops are open, the passers by have the

elastic step of the Parisians. I stop and I look curiously for five minutes at an optician in the Rue des Vieux Colombiers, who, with infinite calm, is busy putting methodically in order his glasses, and eye-glasses, and microscopes. His wife helps him; he goes out of the shop that he may judge of the effect from the sidewalk. And meanwhile we hear distinctly the guns on the side of the Bastille."

Men are, on such occasions, like insects who have been for a moment perturbed and who hasten to resume their instinctive life. It is the same with an army, and Stendhal has wonderfully described what may be called the human part of a battle, in his account of Waterloo in the 'Chartreuse de Parme.'

Halévy turns at times his photographic plate on the famous men of the day; he gives good portraits of Thiers, of Gambetta—true portraits:

"I remember when M. Thiers reëntered the French Chamber on the 11th of January, 1864. I see the little man so often caricatured by my friend Cham, ascending the tribune. I hear, coming out of this tiny body, a small, sharp voice, the driest and most disagreeable of voices. On the face of a certain number of deputies who had never heard M. Thiers could be read clearly this thought: What! is this M. Thiers? Two or three members of the Right screamed, 'Louder! louder!' 'You will hear me in a moment,' and, to be sure, it was soon heard, the little voice. It took accent, authority; and a great silence ensued, the greatest silence I ever heard, for silence is very well heard. . . . There was an old *huissier* who was a great admirer of M. Thiers. It is the business of these ushers in the Chamber to establish silence. When there is a great murmur, which drowns the voice of the speaker, two *huissiers*, at the right and left side of the tribune, scream three or four times: 'Silence! silence!' One day this old *huissier*, seeing M. Thiers ascending the tribune, said: 'Oh! now it is M. Thiers, we have nothing more to do. Nobody stirs while he is there. A fly would not dare to fly during a speech of M. Thiers.'"

During the Empire, Halévy had an office at the Corps Législatif, that of secrétaire-rédacteur. He often saw M. Thiers when he came himself to correct the proof-sheets of his speeches. He corrected much:

"We were all very much afraid of him. . . . He had much vivacity, and he did not bear the smallest observation. I took the liberty to tell him (he was correcting a speech on the affairs of Mexico) that he had made two phrases which, one after the other, said exactly the same thing, in almost identical terms. 'I know it very well,' said M. Thiers with his little voice, 'and I did it on purpose—do you hear? on purpose. . . . The first time I spoke for the intelligent people, for those who understand at once. . . . But you must speak to everybody, you must be understood by everybody. So I spoke the second time for the fools, who are the majority, outside of the Chamber.' And, as I was going away humbly, I heard him say between his lips, 'and in the Chamber, also.'"

M. Thiers had promised at Bordeaux to remain neutral between the Monarchical and Republican parties, but he did not cease for an hour to work against the monarchical solution. Halévy cites what he said at Versailles, after dinner, to some deputies of the Right: "The monarchy is impossible, you ought to see it; . . . but you are always the same incorrigible doctrinaires; you are rich, you live in hôtels between court and garden, you don't know what is going on in the street. If you were reasonable, we would make the Republic together, you and I, and all would go on for the best in an excellent Republic, very wise, very conservative; but you are not reasonable, and you will oblige me to make the Republic with the Republicans, without you, against you, while I should much prefer to make it with you and for you."

There is little in this volume on Gambetta:

"Gambetta is now a sort of sovereign. He has kept his courtiers, his Bordeaux and Tours

staff, his following. This is the most serious danger of the time [this was written just after the Commune]. Two sets of men, hungry for prefectures and sub-prefectures—the men who were put out in September, 1870, and those who were put out in February, 1871—are waiting, with equal impatience and equal avidity, for the restoration of the man, Emperor or President, who will give them back their places. Politics is becoming a trade, a speculation."

The real interest of this small volume is much less in anecdotes concerning the men who played some part in the dramatic years of the war and of the Commune than in small stories and pictures showing the temper of the people during these great events—the fund of philosophy, of good nature, of instinctive resignation which is found in the nation, even at the worst of times.

Correspondence.

THE CENTURY DICTIONARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The faults which Prof. Newcomb finds with my definitions in the Century Dictionary are, I trust, at all events, confined to the earlier pages, where I was unable to see proofs of a part of what I wrote. I ask leave to illustrate my method of preparing definitions, in the instances of the five in my department to which he objects. I take these up in their alphabetical order.

(1.) *Action*. The first step towards defining such a phrase as the "law of action and reaction" is to find who originally introduced it, and where. In this case the author is Newton, the book the 'Principia.' I next inquire whether and where there has been any subsequent discussion of the meaning. This carries me to Thomson and Tait's 'Natural Philosophy.' Finally, I collect the common meaning of the phrase from a series of English writers of different periods. Prof. Newcomb says my definition contains an erroneous sentence. I presume he alludes to that in which I give Newton's definition of "action." Though Thomson and Tait laud Newton's remarks, these certainly confound two distinct phenomena, and we may regret his definition of "action," which does not apply to ordinary cases under the law. I ought to have added something to that effect. But Newton does give that definition, and gives no other, and he lived in an age when men were expected to adhere to their definitions; and I was bound to record his statement. I supplement this in the next sentence by giving the law as it ought to be and is generally understood. There is no error, but only the omission of an explanatory sentence, probably as appearing disrespectful to the "summus Newtonus."

(2.) *Albedo*. This word, introduced by Lambert in 1760, and defined by him, and distinguished into species by Zöllner in 1865, does not belong strictly to my department. I suppose I wrote on the galley-proof: "the proportion of the light falling on a surface irregularly reflected from it," and that the proof-reader, finding this a bad sentence, inserted and before "irregularly," where *that is* would have answered better. The slight confusion resulting is corrected by the rest of the definition. I may remark that *albedo* has nothing to do with the light regularly reflected, which is to be reckoned as if absorbed; and, moreover, a body may have *albedo* although slightly self-luminous, as Saturn has been supposed to be. The *albedo* is, therefore, not exactly "the pro-

portion of incident light reflected by a non-luminous body," as Prof. Newcomb defines it.

(3.) *Alidade*. Arabic terms of astronomy have been in nearly every instance hunted up in Arabian authors, generally in old Latin translations. They have been sought preferentially in translations of Ptolemy, so as to connect them with the Greek. They have also been looked up in Lane's or other Arabic Lexicons; and finally they have been traced through various writers from Chaucer to Newcomb. There is some dispute regarding the proper meaning of the word *alidade* in Arabic. In English, it is generally applied to an arm of an optical instrument, traversing a circle, and attached, as such arms commonly are, to a telescope, or carrying sights. (The restriction by some writers to a vertical circle cannot be justified.) It is, however, occasionally extended (as by Newcomb) to all arms of circles, whether carrying sights or not; and as this use is borne out by Arabian dictionaries, we cannot call it wrong. On the other hand, the word is very frequently applied, both in Arabic (see Devic, 'Glossaire') and in English, to a straight-edge unattached to a circle and bearing sights or a telescope. Both these meanings are given in the Dictionary. The first definition fully accords with that given by Newcomb himself, and the second is even more undoubtedly correct.

(4.) *Almagest*. Supposing the editors would delete this proper name, I wrote no description, and that in the text is continued from the Imperial Dictionary. It is substantially that of Hutton. I took into consideration the alteration of it in the plates, but, after turning over the *Almagest* itself with this view, decided to retain it. Prof. Newcomb makes two objections to the description—first, that it contains no account of the Ptolemaic system, but that would have been ill-placed here; and, second, that the work contains no problems in geometry and astronomy, as stated, which seems hypercritical when we call to mind the treatise on trigonometry in the first book, and when we reflect that the astronomical memoirs of which the work consists are properly enough called problems. The reason given for the name, though not objected to by Prof. Newcomb, is slightly incorrect.

(5.) *Anomaly*. This definition, perhaps the first I wrote in astronomy, I certainly cannot defend. Besides containing a blunder remarked by Prof. Newcomb, the whole is awkwardly drawn up, the applicability of the name "anomaly" is not explained, nor the mode of reckoning it used by Kepler and his followers before Gauss. I hope I may be able in some way to replace the article by another prepared according to my usual method, being based on an examination (1) of Ptolemy, (2) of Kepler (who defines the eccentric anomaly, a term due to him, very clearly as "arcus circuli eccentrici, in consequentia numeratus interceptusque inter lineam apsidum et inter perpendicularem illi per corpus planetæ"), (3) of Gauss, and (4) of a series of English writers.

C. S. PEIRCE.

MILFORD, PA., June 14, 1889.

THE SOUTH FORK FISHING CLUB.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on the Conemaugh disaster is the clearest and most direct summing up of the situation in the wrecked valley that has been made. But there are facts concerning the men who belong to the South Fork Fishing Club which, when made known to you, will assuredly modify your judgment of their responsibility for the disaster. Having so severe-

ly condemned them, I trust that you will, with your customary fairness, make the following facts known about them.

Pittsburgh men have always ranked high for their incorruptible integrity and hatred of wrong-doing, and the men who belong to this club are foremost among these. There are no men in the land with a more intelligent and finer moral sense—none who, as members of society, know and do their duty more conscientiously to their fellow-men—none who seek their welfare with a more generous self-sacrifice. They are all engaged in large business enterprises successfully and righteously carried on, and they are conscientiously and practically trying to solve the perplexing problems involved in the struggle between capital and labor. They are not only good citizens and earnest, moral business men, but they are high-toned Christian gentlemen. They became members of the South Fork Fishing Club, not as selfish sportsmen, but merely to secure a quiet, pleasant, and accessible summer resort for their families. If they are at all responsible for this horrible destruction and woe, it can only be because they are not educated civil engineers, and have consequently been obliged to accept the statements of those who are as to the safety of the dam. They will go mourning all their days that they were remotely connected with this unparalleled disaster. They have worked night and day since, with head and heart and hand, pouring out money like water to relieve the suffering—for which they have been unjustly held responsible.

Hundreds in Pittsburgh will confirm this testimony as the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. Please let it be known wherever the *Nation* is read.—Respectfully,

E. C. V.

CINCINNATI, June 12, 1889.

CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Dana does not need to be told that I am entirely in sympathy with the civil-service reformers, and have the deepest admiration for the energy, devotion, and persistence which they have put into their work. Nor have I said that the Civil-Service Commission was a failure as yet. The main charge is, that in the part of the civil service outside of the examinations, say four-fifths of the whole, the spoils system is just as rampant as it ever was. And what security is there for the rest? It may be assumed, if actions speak only as loud as words, that a large majority of Congress, all the Cabinet, and the President regard the reformed system with contempt and dislike. It will be starved and hampered in every possible way short of actual repeal. The Civil-Service Commission is a perfectly irresponsible body, outside of Congress and the Executive and of the public view. It can be reached only through a Congressional committee of inquiry, which, it is safe to say, would never do much to promote its efficiency. Like all commissions—the worst possible way of doing administrative work—it consists of several members, none of whom, no matter how hard he may work, can gain any credit, or, however bad he may be, will get any special share of blame—conditions not calculated to make the place attractive to first-class men. Its members are appointed by the President. If the political machine can compel him to make over the outside offices, why may it not compel him to do the same thing with the places on the Commission, and so deliver the entire system into the hands of the Philistines? In fact, the whole thing is in a condition of unstable equilibrium,

a pyramid balanced on its point, requiring constant and unremitting watchfulness.

Mr. Dana refers to the English reformed system. That was established, once for all, thirty years ago. They do not have to keep up an elaborate organization, with journals and meetings, to keep the system going. Nobody ever pays any attention to it at all. The examinations are merely a question of detail. If the offices were filled by lot from the citizens of the United States, with tenure during good behavior, it might not give the best possible civil service, but it would be an equally perfect cure for the spoils system. The keynote of effective reform is how to keep off the hands of party politicians, and that is done in England by personal responsibility on the part of the appointing power, so that if one of the Ministry makes a slip, the lash descends with a promptness and force which serve as an effective deterrent to others.

While admitting the advantage of Cabinet responsibility, Mr. Dana has grave doubts as to how it can be brought about. Why, by exactly the same process which obtained the Civil-Service Commission—outside agitation. The Scripture compares the kingdom of heaven to a pearl of great price, to possess which a man would sell all that he hath. If it is true that the basis of all reform with us must be an improvement in administrative methods, then the way is to give up agitation of all sorts of details and go straight for the one thing needful. And this particular thing has an equipment at starting which I doubt if civil-service or any other reform measure has possessed, namely, a scheme complete both in principle and detail, bearing the unanimous endorsement of a committee of the United States Senate, consisting of eight members of both parties.

G. B.

Boston, June 15, 1889.

THE NATIONALIST CLUB.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may aid in the clear comprehension of the leading editorial in the last *Nation* if it is explained that the "Nationalist Club" of Boston has the following provision in its Constitution:

"There shall be two classes of members, active and associate. Active membership shall be open to all persons who believe in the nationalization of industry. Associate membership shall be open to all persons who believe in the nationalization of any special industry not already under the control of the nation. Associate members shall have all the rights and privileges of active members, except the right to vote."

It is only as an associate member that the undersigned, for instance, is connected with the Nationalist Club; and the same is the case, probably, with the Rev. E. E. Hale, whom you also mention. There are a good many persons, I take it, who have reached just this point of conviction—namely, to hold that, if the Government carries on the post-office fairly well, as it certainly does, it may well undertake the telegraph also, as in England; that if it can conduct a bankrupt railroad, through a "receiver," it could also carry on a successful one; that if a city can supply its inhabitants with water, it might as well try the experiment of supplying them with gas. How far this tendency is to go, such persons do not undertake to say—and here they stop short of Mr. Belamy and his thorough supporters; but in the meantime they are willing and glad to put themselves on record as looking in that same direction. They find themselves confronted with a situation which has nowhere been better stated than by a strong opponent of State

Socialism, Prof. A. T. Hadley of Yale University. He says, in the *Political Science Quarterly* for December, 1888: "Modern life demands organized business action. There are two great organizations, either one of which can manage it—organized capital, or organized government." If this be the real alternative, there is certainly an increasing number of persons who would prefer to trust the Government. This is, at any rate, the present writer's inclination.

T. W. HIGGINSON.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 14, 1889.

PROPER NAMES IN DIFFERENT LANGUAGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Does there exist an interlingual dictionary of proper names, or anything at all equivalent to it? Such a thing would be very convenient for readers who have to follow the study of history through two or three languages. It may take a tyro some time to find out that Dietrich and Thierry are Theodoric, or that Hlodowig, Chlodwig, Clovis, Louis, Lewis, and Ludwig are all the same Protean name—to say nothing of such geographical puzzles as Bois-le-Duc and Herzogenbusch; and when he does learn these things it is almost by accident. Even the practised student is apt to be tripped at any time by some travesty which he has forgotten or missed. The lists of proper names given in the ordinary dictionaries go but very little way, and are at most bilingual, so that they are of no scholastic value.

Yours very truly,

L.

18 HUNTINGTON AVENUE, BOSTON, June 8, 1889.

[At the end of 'Lippincott's Biographical Dictionary' is a "Vocabulary of Christian Names" which measurably supplies what our correspondent calls for. For fuller information about personal names he should consult Dr. G. Michaelis's 'Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der gebräuchlichsten Taufnamen' (Berlin, 1856, 72 pp., 8vo); and for Latin names of places use Dr. J. G. T. Graesse's 'Orbis Latinus, oder Verzeichniss der lateinischen Benennungen der bekanntesten Städte, etc., nebst ein deutsch-lat. Register' (Dresden, 1861, 287 pp., 8vo). A. Franklin's 'Dictionnaire des noms, surnoms, et pseudonymes latins de l'histoire littéraire du Moyen Âge' (Paris, 1875, 683 pp., 8vo), covers perhaps too limited a field for our correspondent.—ED. NATION.]

"ELECTRA" AT SMITH COLLEGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Senior Class of Smith College gave the second of its two representations of the "Electra" of Sophocles on Saturday evening, June 15. The audience on the preceding Tuesday had been mainly of the college undergraduates and teachers and students of Greek; on Saturday only the minority felt a distinct interest in the language itself. The double test was a severe one. For Tuesday, the actors thought nervously of their "lines," and wondered apprehensively what theories of pronunciation or of quantity might be applied to their performance. On Saturday, they almost regretted that the judgment of their earlier and dreaded critics had been so uniformly kindly and even enthusiastic, as each expression had added to an expectation on the part of the new hearers that must be made good, if possible. In the first effort they naturally relied upon sympathy with their earnest desire of repro-

ducing something of the Greek spirit, of embodying its wonderful conception of the drama to compensate for mechanical deficiencies; but in the second they felt from the first that there would be a strenuous demand for interpretation through dramatic action, and that the Greek tragedy which it had been the work of a year to appreciate might translate itself to the audience as lack of action. What were *Electra's* pious indignation if the audience yawned? But the audience did not yawn, and the general impression is that the second performance was both smoother and more spirited than the first.

The scenery was painted by members of the committee, and helped materially in producing an impression of grave simplicity. Doctor Blodgett's musical setting of the choral odes enabled the chorus to perform its double function of emphasizing the action of the principal characters and of supplying a distinct æsthetic element. Some knowledge of the difficulties experienced in other attempts to render Greek plays suggested great caution in the introduction of tableaux and chorus movements. Without the help of an instant comprehension of the language of the speakers, the action in a Greek play, even more than in a German or an Italian opera, hovers on the brink of the ridiculous. One giggle hopelessly dispels the tragic atmosphere as far as the laughter is concerned. The success of the chorus in Northampton was marked; few persons could have left the Opera-house either night without a clearer understanding of its functions.

There are two kinds of criticism which the performance must meet, one involving its character as a dramatic effort, the other testing its value as a factor in education. In meeting the first, it must be remembered that youth, inexperience, and a predominatingly intellectual training are not the customary equipment for great histrionic successes. Nor is it usual to find twenty-eight dramatic geniuses among fifty schoolgirls. And such, literally, is the demand made by the peculiar structure of a Greek play, which requires that silence shall speak, and spirit make itself felt through form rather than through motion. The severe criticism of Mr. Frank Sargent would find the results of his own training hardly more than creditable. But what is such an effort when looked at as a piece of discipline? Some of the actors would say that they did not know what work or scholarship meant before they took part in a Greek play. With humorous exaggeration, they will tell you that a clear conscience is inseparable from "elasticity of the joints," and that the one thing more difficult for an American girl than to walk slowly is to stand still. The practical conduct of a Greek play has involved a thousand problems and suggested thousands more. The necessity of individual responsibility, the importance of discipline in the ranks, the moral significance of what the English-speaking people on this side of the Atlantic call "making connections," have all received new emphasis. Besides, most of the actors are supplied with Greek quotations for the rest of their lives.

But, quite apart from these practical considerations, there is something to be gained from a year's study of a masterpiece simply because it is a masterpiece. There is no more fatal blunder than the assumption that effort is best expended where success is within reach. The "Electra" of Sophocles is possibly beyond the powers of any undergraduates, but those powers are likely to be indefinitely greater than if a society play had been given to the perfect satisfaction of the audience. The disciplinary value of afternoon teas and evening prome-

nades needs no emphasis from colleges. The scornful question, "Is it worth while to attempt impossible things for the reward contained in the comment, 'As well as could be expected'?" punctuated with a shrug, misrepresents all the ambitions of such work as is under consideration. Shrugs are completely out of place and very infrequent, but if they were universal, the work would still be worth doing. But in particular cases the great problem is to know what it is wise to attempt. Here the class has been fortunate in having at hand the taste and judgment of Prof. Tyler, who has insisted upon simplicity, dignity, and moral impressiveness. In problems of scholarship connected with the undertaking, he has counselled moderation. Consequently the work has been relieved of the burden of discussion about pitch and accent and rival methods of Greek pronunciation. The aim has been to speak the lines intelligently and sympathetically, and in accordance with the received standards of Greek scholarship in the United States.

O. R.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., June 16, 1889.

THERSITES REDIVIVUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Is a Soldier's Life worth Living?" On this thesis Lord Wolseley has recently been delivering himself, and in a tone the monopoly of which by certain British fire-eaters, alone among those whose native speech is English, will excite no envy. For this tone we were fully prepared by more than one of His Bellicosity's previous utterances; and the conclusion, affirmative, but strictly for domestic adoption, which, at vast expense of wordy bluster, he has elaborated is, also, precisely such as might have been reckoned on. His creed is one of engaging simplicity: militarism, and that only, is the antiseptic which can save the United Kingdom from putrefying. By way of exercise, let fancy figure a man to whom sensibility is mawkishness; who ignores, save with sinister aspect, everything but his own countrymen and their interests; and whose professional egotism contemplates with acrid contempt nearly all occupations except his own. That a man of this stamp, if essentially an amateur in real warfare, and unlesioned in the mystery of reasoning, should, on betaking himself to inkshed, comfort himself mostly as a clamorous swashbuckler, is hardly other than a matter of obvious consequence. In the category of morbid developments, a phenomenon of this complexion, particularly as a contemporary fact, is somewhat noteworthy. Let us inspect it, then, a little narrowly.

The day, we take it, has well nigh gone by when any one who forms his opinions more independently than by proxy, pays much regard to what Mr. Ruskin may think good to enunciate, especially in his excursions beyond the province of art. Laying it down, that "it is only by seriously risking his life in daring deeds, that the soldier can expect to appreciate fully how much a soldier's life is worth living," Lord Wolseley, however, repeats, with approval, his dictum, in much the same strain: "All healthy men like fighting, and like the sense of danger. All brave women like to hear of their fighting, and of their facing danger." Difference from him, as in taste, so in anything else, we are aware that Mr. Ruskin accounts a proof of imbecility, if not incompatible with sanity; and argument with an all-round autocrat would rank, for preposterousness, with his own dogmatism. Yet, in passing, we may indicate, as being eminently characteristic, his avowed

predilection for men who like fighting, and for women who like to hear of their fighting; objects which savages, barbarians, and those who copy after them are usually supposed to be peculiar in admiring. Characteristic, likewise, is his implied position, that the welfare of our species is promoted by encouraging his favorites in the indulgence of their appetite for violence. Nor less characteristic, once more, is his notion, that to like the sense of danger distinguishes all healthy men, while to like to hear of their facing danger distinguishes all brave women. Estimated by this advanced ethical teaching, with its exaltation of mauleys and viragoes, miserable samples of their kind are the poor-spirited creatures, male and female alike, who are content to hear, when danger has to be encountered, that it is encountered without flinching and in a spirit of self-sacrifice. Meantime, the healthy men whom we have seen represented as normal, though they are spoken of, by poetic license, as existent, as yet, to the general comfort, disport themselves in the future; so that these denizens of the Ruskinian Utopia need not discompose us. For the rest, as to the brave women whose partiality has been revealed to the philosopher who applauds them, that they should desire their mates to be imperilled, in the hope, not altogether unjustifiable, of getting rid of them, could hardly be wondered at.

But we have noticed the quotation from Mr. Ruskin chiefly because of what the prancing stepson of Mars, to whom its doctrine seems so axiomatic, immediately appends to it. For, according to him, "No doubt there are thousands of our soldiers who do like war simply for the many healthy pleasures it brings with it." If the facts of the case were far to seek, this intrepid demand on credulity would be intelligible.

Few can stand in need of information relative to the ordinary English soldier. In him we have the dregs of the most degraded class of the populace; and it suffices him that, in the career he chooses, he expects a life of comparative idleness, a sufficiency of food and above all of drink, and a certainty of wages. Matchless as he may be in the article of inbred ferocity, his courage, like his muscle, is inferior to that of any of his social betters. How little he is improved, otherwise than as an implement of destruction, by military discipline, is notorious; the hospitals and courts of justice instructing us as to his demeanor and diversions when not directly under the eye of his superiors. That, as we are told, there are many healthy pleasures annexed to his calling, and that, simply for these, thousands of his fellows like war, is palpably fictitious. As a rule, he detests those things in his life which conduce to his health, while the pleasures which he prizes are, all but wholly, of the most debased and debasing description. And among these pleasures is that which, let Wolseleyites view it as they will, marks the nearest human resemblance to the brute creation. How ardently the titled essayist sympathizes with a zest for phlebotomy is patent from the unvarying tenor of his truculent rhapsody. Of the *æstrus* of a soldier in the breach he says: "It is truly an education to feel that even this vile body of ours can be thus illumined, for the instant, as with a spark of fire that must surely be of heavenly birth." The quality of the religionism here disclosed admits of only one interpretation. The gospel of Moloch, if we had it, would, doubtless, turn out to be conceived in some such vein as this masquerading heathenism. Taken at its very best, are we not authorized in paralleling the inspiration of a soldier in action with that which stimulates

the matador in a bull-fight? Be this how it may, neither Moses, nor Solomon, nor Jesus, nor, so far as we have learned, any prophet before our own day, has inculcated its celestial origin.

Elsewhere we read: "All other pleasures pale before the intense, the maddening delight of leading men into the midst of an enemy, or to the assault of some well-defended place. That rapturous enjoyment takes man out of himself, to the forgetfulness of all earthly considerations. He is, for the time, beside himself, and, as it were, a creature of another world, acting under influences unknown before." Here the officer, not the private, is the subject. But he, too, we are assured, when engaged in his slaughterous work, is rapt with delirious ecstasy, and naturally so, if, as is intimated, he is a passive tool in the hands of a Higher Power, and is oblivious of everything except the future bliss which he believes will reward his supernal frenzy. "Yea, Carnage is His daughter," sang the Tory Wordsworth, premising the name of God; and now our course is made plain to us, if we would be adopted as His sons.

The thoroughness of his touch with the rude spirit of an unregretted past Lord Wolseley leaves no room to gainsay. "In order that man should learn to despise 'the manly art of self-defence,' a new idol has been created for this modern philosophy, the idol of human life. Every practice that can in any way tend to endanger life or limb must be condemned." After thus simultaneously outraging verity and disparaging what every rational being holds dear, he goes on to sneer at the "maudlin philosophy" which legislates with a view to put down prize-fighting, a philosophy which, to his thinking, "strikes at the foundations upon which great nations are built, and from which spring the manly strength and courage of their sons." With him, during the reign of Lord Tennyson's "canker of peace," "manly strength and courage" are sheer phantoms, apart from their realization in what all but the outcasts of society and their shameless abettors view with abhorrence. Fighting, we should judge, he holds to be the supreme good of existence. Who knows, indeed, that he will not next recommend, as the model for our pusillanimous age, his compatriot of Donnybrook Fair, Phe-lim of the trailing coat, with his general invitation just to tread on the tail of it? At any rate, the fact that, on a point of decorum and morality, a nobleman of the Victorian era should obtrusively elect to associate himself with Whitechapel bruisers and the emptyings of prisons, may be, for Great Britain, a sign of the times, though we prefer to believe that his choice of companionship only betokens an abnormal idiosyncrasy.

Summarily, we have seen it asserted that, not till he seriously risks his existence, and experiences the transport of doing so, does a soldier come to understand to the full that his life is worth living. At the same time, as has also been asserted, thousands of his comrades (by implication weaker brethren) are enamoured of their calling "simply for the many healthy pleasures it brings with it,"—that is to say, on a ground purely imaginary. But, for all together, there is another reason, it is alleged, for their being content with their lot.

"To the boy the admiration of his schoolfellows is far more subtle flattery than the applause of those he does not know. And so it is with soldiers. Although the first thought of the British soldier, after an action, is, 'What will they say in England?' still the esteem and praise of comrades are more valued by him than the acclamations of fickle mobs and the accurately measured praise of ministers. Sure-

ly, therefore, life presents itself, to the soldier in action, under an aspect specially calculated to make it worth living."

Thus, the identity between "an action" by-gone and one present being a riddle abandoned as insoluble, though at first the red-coat who has not shown the white feather is satisfied with anticipating the favorable verdict of Mrs. Grundy, he is, on second thoughts, still more satisfied with the approbation of his fellows. And similar approbation is highly welcome, no doubt, to the cracksmen or the thimbligerger. That a soldier who has acquitted himself as was fitting ought to feel cheered by the consciousness that he has done his duty, is observably left unnoticed, and so is the desirableness of cultivating such a consciousness. Is Lord Wolseley of opinion that the fighting efficiency of a soldier would be impaired by his postponing a value for fleeting popularity to anything more elevated?

Further reasons than those which have been specified for the answer which Lord Wolseley returns to his interrogatory are undiscoverable in his rambling and incoherent declamation. Of argument he is, in fact, as sparing as if the business before him were to wield his sword. The emphasis of iteration, as in dealing with an enemy of flesh and blood, is his chief dependence, over and above bravado, for enforcing surrender.

"Yes, the soldier's life is worth living. But, to believe in this, you must expel from its supreme place, among the recognized objects of existence, that greed of gain which seems now to have fastened, like a cancerous sore, upon most of the professions and callings of men outside the Army, the Navy, and the Church. This mad and restless longing for wealth at any price, and for the luxury wealth can purchase, is eating away the manly heart of the English nation. It has become a religion, with its apostles and its writers, aye, even with its poets."

The monstrous falseness and the frontless insolence of this must be evident to any one not entirely ignorant of English society at the present day. Curiously exceptional is the Englishman who ever thinks of entering either the Army, the Navy, or the established Church, as a serious profession, if he has ability for any other occupation, or industry, or interest, or capital. One may well smile, too, at the idea that, among those who follow the vocations which are found selected as being alone reputable, there is a whit less self-seeking than among lawyers, physicians, scientists, artists, teachers, men of letters, dissenting ministers, Romish ecclesiastics, and most other educated classes of the community. No one, proverbially, more than the questionable pretender to martial skill and prowess is liable to the imputation of swaggering boastfulness and gratuitous effrontery. Not without reason is this reminder here provoked. Except for the sinews of war provided by the objects of his disdain, where would have been Lord Wolseley's opportunities for magnifying himself, and the fruits of his utilizing those opportunities? Yet, from his language touching civilians, it is clear that, far from being grateful to them, he regards even veracity of description and the commonest courtesy as in excess of their deserts. Moreover, can it be denied that, with the British officer in war-time, the wish that is uppermost is for casualties which will lead to quick promotion and the emolument thereto attached? *Quod scimus loquimur et quod vidimus testamur.*

To what extent Lord Wolseley has still to acquire customary urbanity in his commerce with the world has been evidenced, since he spent his contempt as above, in the course of a lecture delivered by him at Oxford.

Nor, on that occasion, was he untrue to his habit of resorting to calumnious invention. To confine ourselves, however, for exemplification of his fertility in romancing, to his discourse under review, after signifying his scorn of "these metallic, supercivilized days," he is there pleased to fable a bran-new tribe of fribling cynics, in the shape of depreciators of Nelson. About five and twenty years ago, an eccentric English journalist, claiming to have found out that the memory of the hero of the Nile and of Trafalgar was held in marked veneration by Americans, laboured to show that, therefore, his countrymen must be grievously mistaken in their estimation of him. Building on this circumstance, Lord Wolseley would have it credited that "some now even profess to sneer at the homeliness of the unaffected manhood which enabled him to scatter hostile fleets, and make England a word of victory, and renown, and fear, on every sea her war-ships swept." A fabrication of this sort is suggestive, as is, withal, his designating, with the animus of a purblind Tory, the services, in the War of Secession, of a valued contingent of our soldiers of the North, as only "a daily pastime." And nearly akin to his disregard of facts are the transparent unreality and insincerity which suffuse his heroics generally. A few specimens of these, feigned to express the feelings of the British man at arms, or else addressed to him, are here subjoined:—

"Looking at existence purely from a soldier's point of view, it is incomprehensible how men can care to live, when honour, the salt of life, is no longer one of its recognized ingredients."

"A determination to do our duty by the nation, come what may, and under all circumstances, is a noble resolve, that lifts man out of the slough of selfishness, where so many millions live, and are content to die."

"But, at his most unhappy moment of hunger, thirst, and wretchedness, when nearly exhausted by fatigue and want of sleep, he brightens up as he remembers that it is for England he suffers."

"All that is best and noblest in man is cradled in the love of home and country. From it springs that martial glory without which no nation can be great or last long. But, for this true glory, which, like the forest-tree, takes root and spreads, the nation must pay in blood, the blood of her bravest sons."

"Your country's glory is no mere sentimental, intangible possession. It is a considerable part of its greatness and strength; and he who can add to the fighting reputation of England does her a service worth living to attempt, worth dying to accomplish."

But we must have done with the fustian and rant of the reigning Brummagem Wellington. Sooth to say, he rather reminds one of a terma-gant in cocked hat and jack-boots, who goes up and down the earth in hysterics, disturbing quiet folk by obstreperous protests of her bravery, and honour, and readiness to give up the ghost for it, and all that. Though soldier-ship, as we ourselves had experience not very long ago, is sometimes a cruel and imperious necessity, no person instinct with genuine humanity could eulogize it, for itself, and as an end, as he has done. However a ruder age might have sympathized with his heartless and hectoring mood, and lust for self-aggrandizement, the charities of enlightenment, where it is more than a name, revolt from them with detestation. If England is particularly proud of him, there is just ground why civilization should not be particularly proud of England. Of rare occurrence is the self-exhibition of a man who acknowledges, as he virtually does, that the world would be, to him, an insipid waste, if there were no longer any one to kill.

F. H.

Notes.

T. Y. CROWELL & Co.'s current announcements are 'Paying the Penalty' and 'Three Times Tried'—six short stories in each volume, by G. Manville Fenn, B. L. Farjeon, Grant Allen, etc.; and 'Impressions of Russia,' by Dr. Georg Brandes.

Mr. George H. Jessop, who recently contributed to the *Century* a series of Irish-American stories, has written a novel, 'Judge Lynch, a Tale of the California Vineyards,' which will be published shortly in London by Longmans & Co., and in New York by Belford, Clarke & Co. Miss May Kendall, a young English poetess of more individuality and humor than most magazine versifiers, has also written her first novel, 'Such is Life,' which is to be issued this month both in London and New York by the Longmans.

Frederick Warne & Co. publish directly 'Fifty Years on the Trail: a True Story of Western Life,' by John Y. Nelson and Harrington O'Reilly.

'A School Liad, with Vocabulary,' edited by Prof. T. D. Seymour of Yale, is in the press of Ginn & Co., Boston. The vocabulary will be illustrated with cuts. The same firm announce a 'Practical Latin Composition,' by that able instructor, W. C. Collar, Master of the Roxbury (Mass.) Latin School.

It is said that Miss Elizabeth Balch, an American, is the ingenious author of 'An Author's Love,' which we lately reviewed.

The Committee on Old South Prizes, at the Old South Meeting-house, Boston, offer two prizes for essays by graduates of the Boston High and Latin Schools of 1888 and 1889. The themes proposed are as follows, and we take the liberty of thinking them much too ambitious for boys and girls of seventeen to eighteen: "(1.) French Influence on American Political Thought during the Period of the American and French Revolutions. (2.) Washington's Interest in Education. Discuss especially his project of a National University."

If ever a book deserved to be called a library in itself, it is the British 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature for 1889' (London: J. Whitaker & Sons; New York: R. R. Bowker). It is the analogue of our American 'Publishers' Trade List Annual,' and consists of the various booksellers' catalogues bound in one pair of covers. It is a duodecimo measuring ten inches across the back, the octavo form being the preferred American. The surprising feature of it, after the size, is the Index of 404 pages, which omits no book, and sometimes enters a book three times, under title, subject, and author's name. As this is not merely a directory to new publications, but covers the entire list of the British book-trade, its importance can readily be imagined. Moreover, it embraces a large number of American works published abroad with or without convention. There are twenty-seven different publications pertaining to Longfellow, for example; and it is an odd circumstance that Lowell's list is introduced thus, "Lowell, Hydraulics," and Emerson's, "Emerson (Jas.), Waterwheels." Poe is more popular than either of these last, or than Hawthorne. Four firms contest the market for Cooper's works, three for Mark Twain's. The classification of the Index is very helpful. Shakspeare fills nearly a page, and stands, shall we say? for one 400th part of so much of current Anglo-Saxon literature as is contained in this Catalogue.

Two American firms have laid hands on Bourrienne's 'Memoirs of Napoleon Bonaparte,'

reprinting the 1885 reimpression of the 1836 English edition; and the impecunious book-buyer awaiting his chance has now an excellent opportunity to purchase this work at a low figure. Both that published by the Messrs. Scribner and that by T. Y. Crowell & Co. are neatly bound, in styles appealing to different tastes. Both are in four volumes—the Scribner being smaller and employing a smaller type for the extracts; the more legible of the two editions as respects the body type, since the paper is unglazed and the impression darker. It requires somewhat more shelf-room, though not much. The portraits are poor in both, the Scribners resorting to process reproductions of steel engravings, while Crowell & Co. have been at the expense of woodcuts which hardly justify the effort to excel in this respect. The one incontestable feature of superiority on the part of the Crowell edition is the index, which fills thirty-four pages. With many purchasers this will be decisive, and it certainly deserves such a recognition as will lead all publishers of similar works to supply the defect of English editors and publishers.

A society called The Haliburton was established five years ago at King's College, Windsor, N. S., with a view to furthering "in some degree the development of a distinctive literature in Canada." It now begins a series of annual publications with an essay on Thomas Chandler Haliburton, by F. Blake Crofton (prepared, by the way, for the Nova Scotia Historical Society). A portrait on wood of the creator of "Sam Slick," from a photograph taken at the age of sixty, is prefixed to the pamphlet. Mr. Crofton begins by correcting numerous errors concerning Judge Haliburton in Allibone, the 'Encyclopaedia Britannica' and other sources; and then corrects this author himself in his remarks upon the expulsion of the Acadians, which had their influence upon Longfellow. A character in Haliburton's latest work, 'The Season Ticket,' which was published anonymously, is Senator Boodle, who seems to need no introduction to our generation; but this worthy gentleman was simply a prophet of Colonial confederation, an intercolonial and Pacific railway. Mr. Crofton finds the proverbial expression, "all same old drunk," in Haliburton's 'The Old Judge,' and provisionally makes him the originator of it, as well as of, "How much are you sorry? [reckoned in cash for relief]," Top-sy's "I grewed up," etc. There is an index to this entertaining pamphlet.

Two other historical brochures are on our table: a 'Narrative of the Captivity of Stephen Williams,' who was taken by the French and Indians at Deerfield, February 29, 1703-4, written by himself; and an Address delivered before the Confederate Survivors' Association in Augusta, on April 26, by Col. Charles C. Jones, jr., on "Georgians during the War between the States." The first publication we owe to the Pocumtuck Valley Memorial Association. It has been edited by George Sheldon, and printed at Deerfield, Mass. The narrator was a son of Rev. John Williams, "the redeemed captive," and lived to graduate at Harvard and to have a long and useful career as a minister and chaplain. The reprint is verbatim. An appendix copies some other papers of the diarist, which deal with Indian raids. Dr. Jones's address takes a pessimistic view of the present condition of Georgia as compared with that of ante-bellum days, alleging that, without estimating slave property, the State "is now poorer by more than twelve millions of dollars than she was twenty-nine years ago." He praises the fidelity and peaceableness of the slave population during the war.

Apropos of the Williams narrative just mentioned, we notice that the Deerfield Summer School of History and Romance will begin its fourth season on July 6. Clarence C. Buel, Prof. J. K. Hosmer, Edward Bellamy, Dr. T. M. Coan, Charles Dudley Warner, and Edwin D. Mead are some of those who will read papers. Communications should be addressed to the President, Mr. L. J. B. Lincoln.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June opens with an account, by H. B. Guppy, of the Cocos-Keeling Islands, a group lying about six hundred miles south of Sumatra. They are especially interesting as having been visited by Mr. Darwin in 1836, who founded his theory of subsidence upon his observations of a large atoll contained in them. Mr. Guppy spent ten weeks among the islands, examining them with particular reference to determining whether this or the rival theory of Mr. John Murray of the *Challenger* Expedition is correct. The author's conclusions, well known to be adverse to Darwin's, are deferred to a subsequent paper. The advantages of the islands as a sanitarium, from their comparatively cool and equable climate and small rainfall, are dwelt upon, and interesting facts in regard to the growth of the land are given. Great masses of pumice, for instance, thrown into the sea by the eruption of Krakatoa in 1883, have floated to their shores, which "have in many places advanced from twenty to thirty yards; and young trees, such as *Cordia subcordata*, together with young cocoanut palms, now grow where the waters stood then." The islands, it may be added, are the property of a Mr. G. C. Ross, the grandson of a Scotch seaman who took possession of them some sixty years ago. They are now attached to the Government of Ceylon. A paper on the rainfall in South America south of the tropics, by Mr. W. B. Tripp, is illustrated by an admirable map. The various data are derived from the Meteorological Annals of the Cordoba Observatory. The most noteworthy fact is the great increase of the rainfall in the Argentine Republic from a maximum of 32 inches in 1861 to 48 inches in 1883. There are indications, however, that a time of correspondingly gradual decrease has already set in. Mr. H. R. Mill shows in a popular way the relations of a scientific knowledge of the earth to commerce.

The Messrs. Longmans' *New Review* is out for June, and has an open, attractive appearance, which is not diminished by the relative slenderness of its ninety-six pages of text. Two ladies are on the list of contributors—Mrs. Lynn Linton, with her "Religion of Self-Respect," and Lady Randolph Churchill, who tells of her month in Russia. Boulanger's case, by Senator Alfred Naquet, and impeachment, by Deputy Camille Pelletan, lead off on opposite sides. Mr. Henry James's paper, "After the Play," connects itself with that unique French creation, the "Théâtre Libre," which opens the way to aspiring dramatists, safe alike from the censor and from the criticism of the public at large.

Students of modern Greek may like to hear of a new philological review in that language, *Adhva*, which B. Westermann & Co. supply in this country.

The thirty-seventh annual report of the Trustees of the Boston Public Library is noticeable chiefly for the experiment in regard to binding, by which the present arrangement has been reached of giving only the costly binding to the Library's own force, and having the cheaper done outside. A quarto supplement to the report gives plans and elevations of the new building now in process of erection.

Mr. W. E. Foster, in his eleventh annual re-

port on the Providence Public Library, points to the lowest percentage in the use of fiction ever known in his experience—hardly more than half the total use (57 per cent.). One-fifth of the books called for, he says, are now scientific, one-fifth historical, and three-fifths literary.

The Warren County Library Bulletin, published at Monmouth, Ill., states that "magazines were the beginning of this library. They constituted for two years our entire 'circulating medium.'" The demands thus engendered for books were made the guide in stocking the library, and "in its general department, therefore, this library has aimed to be as learned and as popular, as liberal and as orthodox, as grave and as gay, as the best popular magazines." Further on we read: "A list of the very best new books on farming, gardening, fruit, flowers, poultry, etc., is given at the end of this Bulletin. A table supplied with periodicals, seed catalogues, and gardeners' annuals is in the reading-room."

In the *Bollettino* of the National Central Library at Florence for May 15 we read of the new card-catalogue of its collection of autographs in preparation. The entries are by writer, recipient, or subject (personal). The letters, each of which has its own printed and docketed wrapper, have thus far been catalogued to the number of 10,000, on 32,000 cards.

—The fourth volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' cannot be far from overtaking us before we have paid our respects to the third (Catarrh to Dion. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). China and Cotton are the fullest articles in the present instalment, and perhaps the article attempting a systematic exposition of the Darwinian Theory ranks next in point of length. This is by Prof. Patrick Geddes, while the life of Darwin is sketched by Mr. Grant Allen. A Frenchman, E. de Pressensé, has been intrusted with the definition of Christianity, and has produced rather an apologia than a simple, historical statement of the nature and development of this religion. The article reads like a sermon, and is in marked contrast with Mr. Thisleton Dyer's brief account of Christmas, which follows it a page or two later. The writer who has to deal with the Devil makes him out to be nearly dead; at least—"In later generations the sense of the supernatural has steadily decayed, and with it almost all the terrors of the devil." In the employment of specialists, the editors have in no instance surpassed their selection of one to write on Cremation, for they append a note saying that "while this volume was passing through the press, the author of the above article died, and his body was cremated at Woking." Prof. James Geikie discourses of Coral Islands, and fairly sets forth the latest stage of the controversy over Darwin's theory of their origin. Mr. H. B. Wheatley gives a good summary description of Chapbooks, which he says are still produced in England. The Duke of Argyll writes rather perfunctorily of the Clan. Sir F. de Winton tells with knowledge the main facts about the Congo Free State. None of the biographical notices are masterly. Prof. Hales's Chaucer stands near the front, but has too much conjecture in it. Prof. W. Knight writes sensibly of Coleridge. Goldwin Smith's Cromwell touches the burning Irish question in a way not likely to placate his Irish admirers. Daudet is sketched by G. Saintsbury, without excess of praise, and Dickens by Walter Besant, who ignores the novelist's touring on the Continent and in America, barely mentioning the 'American Notes' in a list of his works. The American

portion of the 'Encyclopædia' shows no signs of neglect, but the contrary. Colorado, Connecticut, and Dakota are illustrated by three maps, and the division of this Territory into two States is recorded. A chapter on our civil service ends with a just picture of improvement within the scope of the beneficent Civil-Service Law, which has "lessened the number of incompetent politicians who thrive upon the 'spoils system' applying for office."

—'Art and Artists of our Time' (Selmar Hess), of which the first sixteen instalments are before us, is made up in the manner of most such publications. The pictures engraved are evidently selected for their popularity rather than for their merit, and, the publisher having thus insured his sales, the critic is allowed to say what he pleases in the text. The worst painters are dismissed with amiable commonplace or damned with faint praise, and all severe criticism is reserved for men of the first rank whom the writer considers worthy of his steel. There is a full-page line engraving after Coomans which was too "pretty" to leave out, and accordingly Mr. Clarence Cook, the editor, manages to fill thirteen lines about the artist. On the other hand, when Mr. Cook devotes between eight and nine pages to serious writing about Millet, the publisher allows him a few small and indifferent process plates scattered through the text. Baudry, whom Mr. Cook hardly sufficiently admires, but whom he treats with respect, is given only two insignificant cuts, and De Nittis, whom he admires greatly, but one; while the painters of "sentiment" and namby-pamby are given all the glory of plate paper and wide margins. The criticisms are written almost entirely from the literary point of view, with hardly a word as to technical methods or merits, judgment being rendered in every case upon the subjects chosen or the manner of presentation. It is perhaps wise for the lay critic to take this ground, but it seems strange in a book professedly dealing with painting to find no word that could indicate to the uninitiate the difference of technique between Corot and Ingres. Many of the plates are second-hand, and those made specially for the present publication are not more than mediocre.

—An account of a journey over the Transcaspian Railway by the Hon. G. Curzon, M.P., in the May Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society, is of more than common interest. After a brief sketch of the history of the undertaking, Mr. Curzon gives a few details as to the construction. The roadway, a low earthwork or embankment, was made by native workmen, of whom the Turkomans proved the best laborers and the Persians the worst, "being incurably idle, though strong as oxen." The plate-layers were picked soldiers of the Russian railway battalions, who laid sometimes "nearly four miles in the day," the normal rate being over two. It should be said, however, that the rails are "simply spiked down without chairs or bolts." The cost of the whole line from the Caspian to Samarkand, a distance of 900 miles, was a little over \$20,000,000, one of the cheapest railways that have ever been constructed. This is owing partly to the uniform flatness of the region traversed, the steepest gradient encountered being only 1 in 150, and there being only three bridges to build; and partly to the cheapness of labor, the wages of the native workmen being at first eight cents, though ultimately sixteen cents a day, while the skilled workmen were mostly soldiers. On the other hand, "every piece of timber, iron, and steel employed," including even the more than two million wooden sleep-

ers used, "was brought from the forests or workshops of Russia, for the most part down the Volga and across the Caspian." For the first 110 miles all the fresh water used has to be transported over the line in tanks; artesian wells and condensing machines having proved unsuccessful. To guard against drifting sands, palisades have been built and tamarisk, wild oats, *saxaoul*, and other desert plants have been brought from nurseries in the Persian mountains and planted along the line. All the fuel used, both for heating and light, is the refuse from distilled petroleum, found in the country itself and brought from Baku. "The tenders for this year specified the total amount required as 6,000,000 gallons." The rolling stock consists of from 100 to 150 locomotives and from 1,500 to 2,000 wagons. Trains run daily from the Caspian to the Oxus, and twice a week from that point to Samarkand, the cost of a second-class through ticket—there are no first-class carriages—being \$18, and the time being seventy-two hours. The whole staff of employees, with a very few exceptions, are soldiers of the line.

—As regards the development of that part of Turkistan through which the line passes, Mr. Curzon does not speak very favorably, because of the scarcity of water. But his account of the great Merv oasis is very encouraging. "The whole district had been made over to the private purse of the Czar, and the result was that scientific engineers had been sent out; the great dam across the upper waters of the Murghab was being repaired; millions of young trees were being planted; cotton cultivation was being encouraged." Considered simply as a commercial enterprise, the railway, having been constructed so as to correspond with the principal caravan and trading routes, is a success. It is said already "to be defraying its working expenses, and whispers of a surplus have actually been heard." An important result, also, of the road, together with the heavy duties upon all foreign goods, is the almost total extinction of English trade in northern Central Asia. In its political effects, the construction of the railway means, according to Mr. Curzon, "the absolute and final Russification of the middle zone of Central Asia from Khorasan to Khiva, and from the Caspian to Samarkand." The military and strategical consequences of the line are too obvious to need mention.

—The *Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen* of Berlin publishes every year a summary of the world's railroad mileage, which is, on the whole, the most authoritative statement of its kind. The current number gives statistics for the close of the year 1887. At that period there were in round numbers 342,000 miles of railroad open for traffic. Of these America had 181,000, or more than half, Europe 130,000, Asia 17,000, Africa 5,000, and Australasia something over 9,000. Of the railroads in America, just about five-sixths were in the United States, which had 150,000 miles. British America had 12,000, and Brazil, Mexico, and the Argentine Republic from 4,000 to 5,000 each. Of the Asiatic railroads, over 14,000 miles were in British India; the Transcaspian railroad and those in the Dutch possessions being the most important among the others. China had practically no railroads in operation, but Japan had nearly 500 miles. In Africa the leading railroad system is that of the Cape Colony, with nearly 2,000 miles in operation. Egypt, Algiers, and Tunis also have considerable systems, but the central part of Africa is almost entirely undeveloped. The oldest Australasian systems are those of New South Wales, Victoria, and New

Zealand, each of which now has about 2,000 miles of railroad. The other Australian colonies are beginning to develop rapidly. In Europe the country with the greatest absolute mileage is Germany, with nearly 25,000 miles, followed by France with 21,000, Great Britain with not quite 20,000, Russia with a little less than 18,000, and the Austrian Empire with 15,000. The country with the largest mileage in proportion to area is Belgium, which has in round numbers one mile of railroad for every four square miles of territory. England alone would probably have about the same proportion, but Great Britain and Ireland have only about one mile of railroad to every six square miles of territory. If the comparison is made with population, France has a slightly larger per-capita mileage than either England, Belgium, or Germany; but that of the United States is more than four times as high as France, while the showing in Australia is even a trifle better than ours.

—A striking thing about these statistics is the amount of increase in recent years. One-third of the railroad mileage in the table was constructed since the close of 1880, the increase in these seven years being not very much less than in the twenty years immediately preceding. Just about half of this increase has been contributed by the United States. The most rapid percentage of increase is of course found in the newest countries, like Australia. If we confine our comparisons to the last four years, we find that while Europe has increased only 13 per cent. and the United States 26 per cent., Australia shows a growth of about 48 per cent. The capital invested in railroads has probably not increased quite so fast as the mileage. A careful, although necessarily somewhat uncertain estimate, makes the average cost of railroads in Europe about \$113,000 per mile, and that in other parts of the world about \$59,000; indicating that the total investment, as nearly as can be ascertained, is \$27,000,000, rather more than half of it in Europe.

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

It might be well if those poets who have not yet established their names and birthdays in the biographical dictionaries should at least put the age as well as the name on their title-pages. Imitativeness is very much a question of age alone. Lowell began, in 'A Year's Life,' by imitating Tennyson's earlier poems, and it did him no harm; indeed, he showed more discretion than Tennyson when it came to weeding them out. Imitation at twenty is often a good sign, if well directed; it proves nothing against a first volume of poems; it is when it continues into the third and fourth volumes that it becomes discouraging. This is the case with Mr. Madison J. Cawein, for instance: the habit of cheap imitation of easy and dangerous models is as glaring in his third book of verse, 'Ascolon of Gaul, and Other Poems' (Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.), as in its predecessors. First we have Swinburne:

"Brows wan through blue-black tresses
Wet with sharp rain and kisses;
Locks loose the sea wind scatters;
Like torn wings fierce for flight;
Cold brows, whose sadness flatters,
One kiss—and then good night." (P. 113.)

Then comes Poe, four pages later:

"And we clomb through a murmur of pinions,
Tidn rattle of talons and plumes,
And a sense as of Boreal dominions
Clove down to the abysses and tombs;
And the Night's naked, Ethiope minions
Swarmed on us in legions of glooms." (P. 117.)

In the title-poem of sixty-four pages we have unmixed Tennyson. Were all these the compositions of a sophomore, by way of joke, it would be well enough, or if a student sus-

pected of genius were to do them seriously, there would be no great harm; but Mr. Cawein is in his third volume.

Again, Mr. Charles Edward Barns prints 'The Amaranth and the Beryl' (Fracker) a his fourth work, but we have the inevitable Poe again:

"Come with me, my angel-bride,
Where the drowsing billows ride;
Where the popped isles of ease
Sleep in paradisaal seas." (P. 181.)

And in the long poem "Mirabel" we have Keats and "The Eve of St. Agnes," at every step.

"Ah, friary vigil of All-hallow's eve!
Now Memory masks with weirds her children pale,
And fancies from the fertile bosom heave,
Crouching them shy upon the eyelids frail.
See! bridled Twilight in her moon-warm veil
Hath crept down from the altars of the sky
With her druid knight in ebon coat of mail,
While the young Hours their tributes kneelingly
Hymn to the panting stars, mid wildest melody." (P. 45.)

To be at once imitative and crude is the blessed privilege of youth; but it is one soon forfeited.

As there are grades in imitation, so there are grades in passion. Few women, especially, attain to passion's white heat; but Anne Reeve Aldrich in 'The Rose of Flame, and Other Poems of Love' (Putnam's), at least reaches the red heat, which is something that at once puts her beyond many of her sisters, who never attain to any real heat at all, but only to an obtrusive burning of unseemly and unfragrant stubble. There is more of the white heat of passion in the few verses of Helen Jackson's "Vintage" or in Saxe Holm's "Three Kisses of Farewell" than in all Miss Aldrich's quaintly bound volume; but there is more in this very volume than Mrs. Amélie Rives Chanler and Mrs. Ella Wheeler Wilcox will ever succeed in putting into their accumulated writings, prose and verse, should they survive until old age and write as many volumes as they wish to write. In Emma Lazarus's collected 'Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) we have something distinct from personal passion, the passion of race and religion, kindled by the sense of wrong. Miss Lazarus was early controlled by two of the strongest personal literary influences of our time, namely, Emerson and Heine; and it is not strange that the latter, wild and witty as he was, should have finally been the ruling influence of this pure-souled woman—remote as she was from his failings and quite destitute, so far as her poems indicate, of his mocking humor. But they had the strongest of all race ties between them, and when it first dawned upon her that her race and religion were persecuted, her life was renewed and consecrated. In New York, in Newport, she was little of a Jew; her family did not attend the synagogue or observe the ordinances; but she learned in suffering for others what she taught in song. Her chosen collective title, "Songs of a Semite," was a fit one; it was a race that found voice in her. She showed real dramatic talent in "Il Spagnoletto," but she was so modest about the little play that it was for years only privately printed. It was only when her voice became a trumpet that she wrote without care for art, and then found all her previous artistic training an advantage. She never attained to her full strength, but will always have for students of literature that picturesqueness which is sometimes more attractive than power.

Mr. William Sharp, the English poet, in the preface to his newly published 'American Sonnets'—which we purpose, by the way, to notice separately—points out how much our cis-Atlantic poets owe to their great variety of surface. Any review of recent American poetry soon becomes a matter of local coloring. Thus,

in 'Poems and Translations,' by Mary Morgan ("Gowan Lea"), published in Montreal by Robinson, we have a Canadian note, but without especial vigor; the German translations are pleasing, though the author should stop short of Heine. 'Among the Millet' (Ottawa: Durie), by Archibald Lampman, is stronger and more varied, or at least more picturesque—especially one poem, "Between the Rapids," which suggests how much ought to be made, by Canadian writers, out of the French life and the *voyageur* element:

"Wild black-eyed Jeanne, whose tongue was never still,
Old wrinkled Piere, Pierre and pale Lisette,
The homely hearts that never could be changed,
While life's wide fields were filled with rush and change," (P. 41.)

Mr. G. Dickinson's 'Wanderer' (Boston: Clark) should have, by its title, some flavor of travel at least, but is a peculiarly repulsive book, because, under cover of a cheap imitation of "Childe Harold," it devotes twenty-five pages of preface and many others of notes to a revival of the details of a scandal which should now be buried in oblivion. 'Christmas Carillons, and Other Poems,' by Annie Chambers-Ketchum (Appleton), offers a pleasing Southern flavor here and there, but is otherwise of little value. In 'Song of the Palm, and Other Poems,' by Tracy Robinson (Brentano), we have the tropical flavor still more accentuated, but without any corresponding increase of wealth or expression. 'Rebel Rhymes, and Other Poems,' by Elizabeth J. Hereford (Putnams), has more that is characteristic of Southern life than of external nature, but it has strength and tenderness, with no undue bitterness. The description of the old plantation where "happy slaves their burden bore" (p. 5), seems a little incongruous when we remember what exceedingly severe laws were—somehow needed to keep these same happy creatures from running away from bliss. In 'Some Dainty Poems,' by Waldo Messaros (Philadelphia: Hartranft), we have local flavor again, but this time of modern Greece; and the poems describing the author's Greek parentage and childhood are spirited enough to win some charity for the affectation of the title. 'Idyls of the Golden Shore,' by Hu Maxwell (Putnams), takes us to California, and offers themes which have a certain value quite apart from the treatment. The poems were mainly written by the camp fire. Carrie Warner Morehouse, in 'The Legend of Psyche, and Other Verses' (St. Johnsbury, Vt.: Walter), should give us a Vermont flavor at least, but there is in the book more of Greece, or at least of Europe, than of the Green Mountains, although "In Late Summer" (p. 45) is simple and genuine.

'A Bachelor's Wife, and Other Poems,' by Channing Moore Huntington (Utica, N. Y.: Kelly), is illustrated by that well-known artist, the poet's father, and has at least that attraction. 'Mother Carey's Chickens,' by Wilbur Larremore (Cassell), has some seriousness of purpose and poetic expression, especially in the sonnets to Emerson and Bryant. Carlotta Perry's 'Poems' (Belford) show a fatal facility. Mr. Warren Holden of Girard College publishes a third thin volume of his poems, which have a certain promise from their modesty and simplicity—'Autobiography of Love' (Lippincott). 'White Sails,' by Emily Huntington Nason (Boston: Lothrop), is printed with an amplitude of type rather out of proportion to its merits, and it paralyzes one's faith in the author's outdoor poetry to find her, in "Wild Columbine" (p. 86), describing that spring flower as coming after the buttercups and field-lilies have faded. Mr. Harry Lyman Koopman, who essayed the dramatic once before in his 'Orestes,' tries it again in 'Wo-

man's Will; a Love-Play in Five Acts' (Buffalo: Moulton, Wenbourne & Co.), but we still think his best talent is lyrical. Mr. W. R. Thayer, in 'Hesper, an American Drama' (Cambridge: C. W. Sever), shows more of the dramatic instinct, but not with any stage adaptation or, perhaps, intent; and his soldiers are a little too self-conscious. He has strong lines and phrases, and graceful interludes. All these are singularly deficient in a much longer and more ambitious work, 'Master, a Poem,' by John Ruse Larus (Putnams), which seems like a pale reflection of that fifty-year-old poem, 'Festus.' That had at least many fine and quotable passages; we cannot find such in 'Master,' although the author wrestles with mighty themes.

In Mr. John D. Ross's 'Scottish Poets in America' (Pagan & Ross) we have an admirable summing-up of a whole line of poetic descent, and it is extremely interesting to see how the minor muse of a really imaginative nation bears transplanting to a somewhat milder climate. There are some unexpected discoveries to be made, too, as when we find that the well-known poem, "It's dowie in the hint o' hairst," was possibly written in America, and certainly by an author who lived here during the greater part of his life, and died lately at the age of eighty-six at Louisville, Ky.—Hew Ainslie. He is described as a man of magnificent physique, and it is recorded of him by Mr. Ross, as a truly Scottish distinction, that in his youth he had kissed Burns's "Bonny Jean." His best-known poem begins thus, it being premised that "dowie" means sad, and that the "hint o' hairst" is the end of harvest:

"It's dowie in the hint o' hairst
At the wa' gang o' the swallow.
When the wind grows cauld and the burns grow bauld,
And the wuds are hingin' yellow;
But oh, its dowie far to see
The wa' gang o' her heart gaes wi',
The dead-set o' a shinin' e'e—
That darkens the wearie waird on thee." (P. 57.)

In 'Echoes from the Blarney Stone,' by W. C. R. (Chicago: Kerr), we have a less interesting showing of Irish poetry than Mr. Ross gives us of Scottish, but the Irish verse is by one man, and includes some fairly good fooling.

There are whole departments of poetry which have, doubtless, a certain value that bears no relation whatever to literary criticism. There is the religious poetry, devout but uninspired, and perhaps profitable to many hearts. To this class belong 'Comfort,' by Mrs. Herrick Johnson (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), 'Lays of Memory and Affection,' by Caroline May (Randolph), and 'Reliques of the Christ,' by Denis Wortman, D.D. (Dutton). This last has been read by bishops and others "with tender, almost tearful interest." Then there is the poetry of the domestic affections, inspired by the muse of the old arm-chair. There can be no better type of this than 'Grandma's Memories,' by Mary D. Brine (Dutton), author of 'Grandma's Attic Treasures,' a work of which, as we are told, 30,000 copies have been sold. It may be called a thoroughly cosmopolitan book, the text being American, the illustrations English, and their execution German. To the great number of persons who would willingly see their grandparents represented with such countenances, costumes, equipages, and residences as no living American grandparents ever possessed, this book will be a source of delight and as good as a coat-of-arms.

Most of the volumes which we have mentioned are the work of youth; but two of the latest comers proceed from men past the prime of life, who have hitherto been better known in other paths than those of verse. Dr. Weir Mitchell's 'A Cup of Youth, and Other Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) does not strike us as

an advance on the highly dramatic poems contained in his previous volume, especially "A Masque" and "A Huguenot Story." The title-poem in this case has touches of similar power, but is less sustained, and there are highly elaborated scenes leading up to an ending so inadequate as to seem almost trivial. Nor are the meditative poems so striking as Dr. Mitchell has before given us, strong as are the three opening verses of this:

TO THE SEA AT DAWN.

The moon exults in new-born light
And, black athwart its gold,
The broken fragments of the night
Rock in their cradles old.

Ho, sturdy wooer of the great!
What need to mock thy power
With feeble woman-tales that prate
Of manhood's yielding hour?

The Norseland fury in us craves
To feel thy billows leap;
Claims kinship with you bounding waves,
Calls cousin with the deep. (P. 63.)

Mr. T. W. Higginson has waited even longer than Dr. Mitchell before venturing on his one slender volume of verse, 'The Afternoon Landscape' (Longmans), a collection of which the keynote is perhaps given by the opening poem:

SONNET TO DUTY.

Light of d'm mornings; shield from heat and cold;
Balm for all ailments; substitute for praise;
Comrade of those who plod in lonely ways
(Ways that grow lonelier as the years wax old);
Tonic for fears; check to the over-bold;
Nurse, whose calm hand its strong restriction lays,
Kind, but resistless, on our wayward ways;
Mart, where high wisdom at vast price is sold;
Gardener, whose touch bids the rose-petals fall.
The thorns endure; surgeon, who human hearts
Searchest with probes, though the death-touch be
given;
Spell that knits friends, but yearning lovers parts;
Tyrant resistless o'er our blisses all;
Oh, can it be thine other name is Heaven?

Emerson in Concord: A Memoir. Written for the Social Circle in Concord, Massachusetts. By Edward Waldo Emerson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

MR. EMERSON, in writing a memoir of his father for the Concord club to which he belonged, has found an opportunity for supplying that human element in the life of the poet and philosopher in which Mr. Cabot's biography was felt to be conspicuously deficient. He regards his father as a man among men, especially in domestic and town life, and he has produced a valuable as well as an entertaining volume. He has used the method of anecdote and of apposite extracts from Emerson's journals; but though the material is fragmentary, the narrative is continuous, and derives a greater charm from its rapid changes. The traits of Emerson are the well-known ones, as before, but the new illustrations of them give more personality to him, perhaps as much because the volume is confined to this one purpose as for any other reason. In one important particular, however, the son makes a correction. He mentions the shrewdness ascribed to his father as a Yankee characteristic and enforced by his business dealings in behalf of Carlyle; but he says that this notion is erroneous. On the contrary, his father's capacity in these ways was of the slightest: "he had no business faculty, or even ordinary skill in figures; could only with the greatest difficulty be made to understand an account, and his dealings with the American publishers on behalf of Mr. Carlyle, adduced in proof of his Yankee 'faculty,' really only show what love and loyalty he bore his friend, that he would freely undertake for him duties so uncongenial and—but for outside help and expert counsel—almost impossible for him." His real-estate agent defrauded him for years, and would have walked off with the property itself had not Emerson's son-in-law, Mr. Forbes, taken charge of his affairs; and even in dealing with the publishers the same friend was able to make more

remunerative arrangements. The idea, therefore, that Mr. Emerson had any head for business must be abandoned.

What is told us of his gardening tends in the same direction, and shows the wisdom of his little boy's well-known criticism, "Papa, I am afraid you will dig your leg." His friends assisted him in the care of his acres. After a while he gave up handling hoe and spade, and confined himself to pruning and to picking up pears and apples. He was much interested in his fruits, and always sent specimens to the "Cattle-Show." One day the committee of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society called on him, and, in answer to his smile of "modest pride at having his little orchard thus honored," the chairman said: "Mr. Emerson, the Committee have called to see the soil which produces such poor specimens of such fine varieties." He was as little of a farmer as of a business man.

He endeavored to join in the life of the community as a neighbor and citizen, but he was always clearly conscious of the gulf which divided him from the mass. He would attend town-meeting and enjoy the rude encounter of wit and character there, but he seldom joined in it; he would "fight fire" with his pine-branch in the woods beside the rest, but he could not get on frank talking terms at the grocery or other rendezvous of the village people. His shyness was partly the cause, but there was a constitutional unreadiness in him also. This is completely expressed in the anecdote of his brother Charles saying to him, when he had professed his ability to be burned at the stake—"Yes, but if any one spoke to you on the way there, you would be so abashed you wouldn't have a word to say." Upon this he remarks in his journal: "Charles's naïf censure last night provoked me to show him a fact apparently entirely new to him—that my entire success, such as it is, is composed wholly of particular failures; every public work of mine of the least importance having been, probably without exception, noted at the time as a failure. The only success (agreeably to common ideas) has been in the country, and there founded on the false notion that here was a Boston preacher." The respect of the people was also another bar to familiarity. His views were unpopular, but his character was prized, and every one went to hear his lectures. The audience did not always understand him, but they liked to hear him. One anecdote is illustrative. An old lady was displeased at the lecture on Plato, and remarked that "if those old heathen really did what Mr. Emerson said they did, the less said about them the better." The offending passage was as follows: "Plato especially had no external biography. If he had lover, wife, or children, we hear nothing of them. *He ground them into paint.*" But many of his hearers, doubtless, were fortunate if they could get so literal a meaning out of his words. The son, however, thinks that his father overestimated the isolation of his life from men and the difficulty of establishing relations with them.

The description of Emerson's habits is made up of scattered details. After he had passed the insecure period of his health, he was usually in good physical trim. "He always thrived," it is said, "upon physical hardship, and took a certain pleasure in it." His principal exercise was walking, and he seldom took omnibuses or cabs. "He would walk across the city to his train, carrying usually his rather heavy leathern travelling-bag in his hand, at such a speed that a companion must run to keep up with him, and this without apparent effort or any noticeable effect of overheating or

shortness of breath." He had no practice in riding. When he was fifty years old he skated with the children, and he was a strong swimmer. He learned to shoot a rifle, and in giving it to his son instructed him in loading and firing it, but "by no means with the readiness of a sportsman." He cared little for garden flowers, and would not touch pet animals, but he "went with zeal to Magner's secret horse-training lecture in the stable of the Middlesex Hotel." He always kept ears of corn in his study to catch the horse with. In his love of nature he seems not to have discriminated between beauty and wildness. In his family he was a careful educator. He insisted on a temperate observance of the Sabbath, and would not permit games to be played. The children had Bible-lessons and learned hymns, and in the afternoon he took them to walk, but not to drive. There was much of tradition in this. One day, it being rainy, Mrs. Emerson had told the children they might have a game of battledore and shuttlecock, but no sooner was the sound heard than the study door opened and Emerson said, "That sound was never heard in New England before on Sunday, and must not be in my house. Put them away." This, perhaps, tells the whole story. He looked unfavorably upon cards on week-days, and would not allow their use in the daytime. He took interest in the children's studies, and particularly in declamation, but he did not care to have them excel in singing: he thought he had observed that singing and oratory did not go together. Out of such details as these it is easy to obtain an impression of the home life.

From a literary point of view the most interesting portion of the book is what is told us at the end of Emerson's habits of composing poetry. The freeing of the poetical faculty in him was a slow process, and he had such difficulty in it that he believed completely in the impulse of the inspired moment. It is therefore the more singular that he worked over into poetry what first came to him in prose, and apparently wrote it down in prose with a view to poetry. The address to the sea which is given from the journal was not a case of this sort; it was melodious prose which, after writing, he discovered to be blank verse; but the first draft of "The Two Rivers" is a clear case of notes for a poem. It is not likely that born poets have often gone to work in this way; and we are by no means certain that, leaving out what was added in the poem, the prose version here is not the better of the two. He wished to be a poet, and prized what he did in that way; he lamented the inconstancy of the muse; he found something exceptional in his mental state in poetic composition. The assertion in his journal that he could not within a twelvemonth after the composition of "Days" remember either composing or correcting it, and "could not write the like to-day," is very singular. "I can breathe at any time," he says, referring to prose-composition, "but I can only whistle when the right pucker comes." He seems to have carried in his life ideal personages, like Saadi, and to have won expression for them a few lines at a time, which he afterwards joined by means of the unity of mood or view which belonged to them. The consequence was that none of these, which in another more fluent poet would have been longer poems or true creations, were completed. The history of Emerson's poetical growth is one of the most interesting in literature, and the contributions to it made here are valuable.

The editing of all this material is admirable; the tone of the writer, at once modest and frank, gives refinement to the style; and where-

ever he touches upon the life of the town—and this record is valuable for its own sake—he does so without offence. The volume will be one of the principal sources of knowledge about Emerson to all who desire to be acquainted with his life.

New Materials for the History of the American Revolution. Translated from documents in the French archives, and edited by John Durand. Henry Holt & Co. 1889.

WHAT are new materials for history? Mr. Durand has given us a volume principally made up of documents and extracts from documents which have not been printed in English before. On the other hand, many of the most important of them have appeared in French in such well-known works as 'Beaumarchais et son temps,' by Louis de Loménie, and the great compilation now appearing from the hand of M. Doniol. Some entirely unpublished matter there probably is, but it is hard to say how much, for Mr. Durand gives very few references to printed books, and none to the classified volumes or dockets of the archives. Nor are the documents, as we get them from him, entirely satisfactory. There is a certain scrappiness in his method of editing. He leaves out too much, and does not always warn us where his elisions occur. To the historical scholar, therefore, in search of new material, the book will prove a disappointment. There is nothing in it to change his views on any important historical subject, nor are the original sources presented in a trustworthy form. To the general reader, on the other hand, this small and interesting volume may be recommended. To him it will be rendered easy reading by the very qualities which make it comparatively valueless to the student. The author is not thoroughly read in his subject, but he has a good general understanding of it. His views are mainly sound, although he holds them a little too unreservedly. He writes with the freshness and enthusiasm of a discoverer—an enthusiasm none the less sincere because the discoveries have mostly been made before him.

About half the book is taken up with the relations of Beaumarchais to the United States. The author is apparently unaware of the light thrown by Bettelheim on the character of that fascinating adventurer. In the matter principally treated of here, however, *Figaro* was in the right, and the United States were at first innocently, and afterwards culpably, in the wrong.

In dealing with this affair, and in other parts of the book, we think that Mr. Durand is carried a little too far by his almost exclusive reliance on French sources. Particularly is this the case in his treatment of John Adams. That statesman was obstinate, suspicious, and wanting in tact; but is it not a little absurd to represent him (as Vergennes did in his instructions to Luzerne) as belonging to a party "principally engaged in effecting a reconciliation between the United States and England, in negotiating with and forming an alliance with the Court of London"? We can see no inconsistency between the statements in a letter from Adams to Vergennes, given on page 223 of Mr. Durand's book, and the passage from Adams's diary of an earlier date, quoted in a note on the same page. The letter of May 12, 1780, runs thus:—

"When we hear them affirm in Parliament that America is on the point of returning to an allegiance with the King of England; . . . when the members of the Opposition, . . . such as Mr. Hartley, Gen. Conway, and others, discover plainly by their motions and arguments that their object is a separate peace with

America in order to be the better able to gratify their revenge against France and Spain, I can have no expectations that they think of applying to me, because I think they might be convinced of this at least, that I shall make no separate peace. . . . Our alliance with France is an honor and a security which have ever been near my heart. . . . I have ever thought it, therefore, a national alliance, and contended for it as a rock of defence. This object I proposed in Congress with persevering assiduity for more than a year in opposition to other gentlemen of much greater name and abilities than mine."

The diary, dated April 29, 1778, is as follows: "I will be buried in the ocean, or in any other manner sacrificed, before I will voluntarily put on the chains of France, when I am struggling to throw off those of Great Britain."

It is true that the aid rendered by France was invaluable to the United States, but the question presented to patriotic Americans was whether the attitude to be assumed towards the more powerful country was that of an ally or of a dependent. John Adams, with almost ludicrous vehemence, both in season and out of season, rejected the latter alternative, and, while we may smile at his vagaries, we can but honor the sturdy independence of his patriotism.

Buddhism: By Sir Monier Monier-Williams, K.C.I.E. London: John Murray; New York: Macmillan. 1889.

THIS volume is the outcome of the Duff Lectures delivered by the author at Edinburgh in the month of March, 1888. "Dr. Duff was a man to whom Scotland has assigned a place in the foremost rank of her most eminent evangelists; and he has earned an enduring reputation throughout India and the United Kingdom as the prince of educational missionaries." So spake the lecturer in introducing his subject. No doubt a course of lectures on "Buddhism" is befitting such a subject, although we may be tolerably certain that Dr. Duff never met, or conversed with, a single Buddhist in India. That religion is clean wiped out from the country of its birth, although it still lives there under other forms and other names. In this sense, "Buddhism" may properly be investigated "in connection with Brahmanism and Hinduism." As to its "contrast with Christianity," to which point the lecturer also devotes himself in the last chapter of his book, the investigation is intended to lead up to an answer to this question: "Which doctrines [i. e., Christian or Buddhist] are to be preferred by rational and thoughtful men in the nineteenth century?" We should have thought no elaborate contrast between the two systems of belief was necessary for a reply to this question. The true interest which attaches to the study of Buddhism centres in the query, *not* whether it is a rival in any way of the Christian religion, but whether, in the order of the law of *continuity*, observable in the spiritual as well as in the physical world, it did not prepare the way for Christianity and assist in shaping it as a religious system. This is the question which is engaging the attention of many "rational and thoughtful men" in the present day.

Sir Monier Williams divides his book into eighteen chapters, each of which contains matter for careful consideration. It is difficult, within the compass of a short review, and in consideration of the complexity of the subject, to select points for remark. There is one conclusion, however, to which the lecturer comes, in computing the number of Buddhists in the world, with which we fully agree. No doubt the number has been overestimated. The Chinese are not Buddhists to any great extent. They affect to despise the system; nevertheless,

they tolerate it. The calculation of Dr. Happer that there are only 20,000,000 of Buddhists in China, may be short of the mark, but it is not very much out of the way.

Perhaps the most interesting chapter in the book is the fourteenth, which treats of the "Sacred Places" of Buddhism. The interest of this lecture is derived from the fact that the lecturer has himself visited many of the spots he mentions. For instance, at Buddha-Gayā, which is a kind of Buddhist Jerusalem, the author tells us that the temple which he saw there in 1876 was "probably not built until the middle of the second century, but was erected on the foundation of Asoka's temple, the ruins of which are traceable under the present one" (p. 390). He describes it as built of bluish bricks and plastered with lime. At the back of the terrace which surrounded the temple was a Pipal or sacred fig-tree, fabled to be the very one under which Gautama sat during his profound meditation which led to his enlightenment. The temple and tree have now disappeared. The authority of "the Society for the Preservation of Ancient Buildings," vulgarly yclept "the Anti-Scrape Society," does not extend to India. Consequently, the British Government in 1881-82 undertook to improve this ancient monument off the face of the earth. A lakh of rupees has been spent in accomplishing it.

"The reconstruction of the building led, of course, to the removal of the sacred Bodhi-tree, but an effort was made to preserve the tree by transplanting it to a neighboring garden. No sooner was this done than parties of pilgrims from Burmah and Ceylon, in their pious desire to maintain the vitality of the venerated tree, covered the stem with gold-leaf, and, bringing eau-de-cologne and other scents, poured them over the roots, at the same time manuring them with the contents of boxes of sardines steeped in oil, choice biscuits, and other delicacies. Of course, the result was the speedy destruction of the tree, root and branch" (p. 393). Such was the tragic-comic end of the oldest historical tree in the world.

The whole book, although to a great extent only a compilation, deserves thoughtful study. It has been skilfully put together, and includes a vast amount of authentic information. Whether it will tend to solve the vexed questions which still perplex people who have studied the subject, we are not at all sure.

Ancestry of Thirty-three Rhode Islanders (Born in the 18th Century), etc. By John Osborne Austin. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons. 1889.

Two years ago we were praising the large, the monumental work by the same author, the 'Genealogical History of Rhode Island.' The present volume has the same shape as its predecessor, and is a sort of sequel to it—a portion of the at best narrow field being selected for further elaboration. The thirty-three are drawn from various walks in life. Nearly one-half of them are to be found in 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography,' and most of the remainder held public stations, State or national, or were prominent as merchants, manufacturers, lawyers, or physicians. The best-known are Wm. Ellery Channing, Nathanael Greene, Stephen Hopkins, Oliver Hazard Perry, and Gilbert Stuart; Nicholas Brown and Rowland Hazard and William Sprague are scarcely less notorious. In two instances the wife's pedigree is substituted for the husband's (Crawford for Allen, Wanton for Lyman); in one, the mother's (Waterman for Jackson). A very slight examination of Mr. Austin's indices is sufficient to show that not a person on his list is unrelated to one or more of the other thirty-two. This proceeds

not from his selection, but from the smallness of the community with which he is dealing; and as the fact is both curious and stimulating (in a genealogical sense), we wish he had made it plain in a special table. His group embraces the most prolific Rhode Island families, such as (besides those already enumerated) Arnold, Fenner, and Harris; and at least five of the thirty-three unite their pedigrees in Roger Williams.

Hence the second section of this work consists of "twenty-seven charts of Roger Williams's descendants to the fifth generation," among which occur yet other familiar Rhode Island surnames—Angell, Brenton, Cranston, Dyer, Jenckes, Olney, Randall, Rhodes, Tibbitts, Tillinghast, Tourtelot, Whipple, etc. The males who perpetuate the founder's name number 75; while the total of his descendants distributed among 52 stirpes is 849.

Another very fruitful line is that of Latham, which goes back to the centenarian Lewis Latham (1555-1655), Falconer to Charles I. His daughter Frances, though only attaining the age of sixty-six, contrived to marry four times, accompanying her third husband to America, together with her children by her second, and becoming the progenitor of the great tribe of Clarke, and of five Governors of Rhode Island. Many Rhode Islanders trace back to her through the two lines of Dungan and Clarke. Mr. Austin gives a very interesting biographical page to her father, and then charts his posterity through Frances and her eleven children (four Dungan, seven Clarke), showing eighty-two great-grandchildren.

Frances Latham probably brought with her to this country a portrait of her father which is still preserved, and this interesting relic is enumerated in the fourth section of Mr. Austin's thesaurus, namely, a list of "Prominent Rhode Islanders of whom Portraits in Oil (or otherwise) exist (including a few others intimately connected with Rhode Island history [such as King Charles II., grantor of Rhode Island's charter, Bishop Berkeley, Washington, Wayland, etc.])." This shows in one view the dates of birth and death, occupation or distinction, name of the artist, and the depository of the portrait.

Such is the scheme of this original work, whose execution is worthy of the highest praise for clearness, compactness, and accuracy, betokening a special intelligence and aptitude for genealogical exposition. We wish that a territory both more remarkable and more restricted—to wit, Essex County, Massachusetts—could be similarly illustrated, by a compilation that ought not to be difficult to make, seeing what a vast store of material lies ready to hand in books. The case has been quite otherwise with Mr. Austin.

The Counter-Reformation. By Adolphus William Ward, Litt.D. [Epochs of Church History.] A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

THE appearance of Dr. Ward's 'Counter-Reformation' makes one wonder again whether the business of making "epoch-books" is not being overdone. It is hard to imagine who can be served by such a book as this. It can be of little use to the young student, since it continually assumes a knowledge of events and a familiarity with technical terms which none but a scholar could be expected to have. For the scholar, however, it contains nothing which he could not get much better and with no more trouble in many other books. It offers him no new points of view; nor even—what has justified many a small book—does it provide him with any convenient apparatus for the better

use of his material. As for the "intelligent reader," he would almost certainly be repelled by the dulness of the narrative, its entire absence of proportion or of light and shade, and its frequent obscurity.

Yet the subject is a very tempting one. The Roman Church, roused at last to its danger, summoning all its vast resources of virtue, enthusiasm, courage, organization, violence, unscrupulousness, and turning them all to the one great purpose of recovering its hold upon the conscience of Europe—this is a theme which might well appeal to any scholar. Its central motive is the Council of Trent—itsself a subject quite large enough for an "epoch-book." We should have welcomed gladly any clear exposition of the exceedingly complicated motives which brought about the final result; but what does Dr. Ward's chapter of forty pages on the Council give us? Only a scrappy series of paragraphs, without definite sequence or unity of purpose. His English is at times extraordinary. "Implicitly, the exercise in the Empire of any Confession by the side of the Roman, except that of Augsburg, was prohibited"; "Material interests, and religious and educational likewise, to a very considerable extent, were threatened by its incidence," are illustrations, selected at random, of a style which might, perhaps, be pardoned if it were the vehicle of weighty matter.

Let us have no more epoch-books, or let them be written carefully and with some definite purpose beyond that of filling a gap in the series.

The Chemistry of Photography. By Raphael Meldola, F.R.S. [Nature Series.] Macmillan & Co. 1889.

PROF. MELDOLA's work will receive a hearty welcome, not only from professional photographers who wish to understand the scientific principles upon which their art is based, but even from chemists and physicists, who will find in it no small matter for thought and study. The work is not a treatise on photography. It consists of nine clear and carefully written lectures, with appendices giving well-chosen experiments, many of which are new. The author first points out the distinction between photo-chemical and photo-physical changes, giving as instances, of the first the action of light upon salt of silver, and of the second the action upon phosphorus and selenium. Attention is then directed to various metals, the compounds of which are decomposed by light; the chemical action being, so far as known, expressed by equations as customary with chemists. The details are very full and

instructive. Then follows the special treatment of the silver compounds, followed by the theory of the action of sensitizers, with some historical notices. We have next the curious details of emulsion photography and the theory of developers and restrainers, with the explanation of many interesting special phenomena like that of reversal. Lecture vii treats of spectrum photography and of reversals in the spectrum. Next comes the important subject of the relationship between photo-chemical decomposition and the absorption of light, the subject of ortho-chromatic photography being very well treated. The last lecture deals with processes subsequent to development, such as intensification, and in conclusion we have an account of the chromatinized gelatine and pigment printing processes. The book deserves very hearty commendation as a popular scientific treatise in the best sense of the term.

A Chinese and English Phrase-Book in the Canton Dialect. By T. L. Stedman and K. P. Lee. New York: William R. Jenkins. 1888.

THIS useful manual may be properly called "English without a Teacher." It is constructed on the "glossic" system, every sound being represented by a character or symbol of the Chinese approaching as nearly as possible to the utterance required. But it is not only for the Chinese, but for English-speaking people, that the book is designed to be useful. On each page, opposite the artificial Chinese sentences, are found the true Cantonese equivalents, number for number; so that a student may learn his Chinese, as the Chinaman learns his English, from the same page.

The labor of compiling this little book must have been very great. There are forty-one lessons, on all sorts of subjects, included within 167 pages. Each page contains from nine to eleven sentences, and each of these sentences on the one side is phoneticized into broken English, and on the other is reproduced in genuine Chinese dress, with the Canton pronunciation of each character. It is an amusing as well as a most useful manual—"pidgin" English is always an amusement; but this book is far in advance of the Hong Kong Anglo-Portuguese gabble. There is a system observed throughout. The same symbol always represents the same sound, so that when the Chinaman has once got hold of the sound in one sentence, he will know how to reproduce it in another.

As a specimen of the method, we will take the first question in the book—"Good morning, sir; how do you do?" This is conveyed to the

Chinese reader in the following dress: "Kuta-mo-ning-sha-hau-to-ju-to." And so for the rest. We doubt not the book will be a popular one, and it richly deserves to be used and to be praised.

Midnight Sunbeams; or, Bits of Travel through the Land of the Norseman. By Edwin Coolidge Kimball. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 1888.

MR. KIMBALL takes his readers over a route that has often been described by recent tourists. From Copenhagen to Stockholm by way of the Gotha Canal, thence by rail to Trondhjem, thence by steamer to the North Cape, with a variety of Baedeker excursions in Norway upon the return—all this is coming to be almost as much an old story as Switzerland and the Rhine. Nevertheless, Mr. Kimball has made a fairly readable book, a book which will be useful to the prospective tourist, and not without interest to the general reader. He writes in a plain, straightforward style, and confines himself strictly to his own personal experiences. There is no suggestion that he is ambitious to be thought a profound observer or a clever literary artist. He simply goes from place to place, sees the regulation sights, and tells us how he was impressed and how he fared in respect of accommodations. The matter of the book is such as an experienced tourist might write in the form of letters to an elderly friend at home; but, while written in a somewhat quotidian vein, Mr. Kimball's pages sufficiently indicate a warm feeling on his part for the Northmen and their country.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allard, A. *Dépréciation des Richesses.* Liège.
Bates, Katharine Lee. *Coleridge's Ancient Mariner.* Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Carus, P. *Fundamental Problems. The Method of Philosophy as a Systematic Arrangement of Knowledge.* Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. \$1.
Cockshott, Walters. *A Treatise on Geometrical Conics.* Macmillan & Co. \$1.25.
De Witt, Madame. *Les Hérolines de Harlem.* With a French-English Vocabulary by Paul E. E. Barbier. Illustrated. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Douglas, M. *Can Love Sin?* Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. \$1.50.
Finch-Kelly, Florence. *Frances: A Story for Men and Women.* Sanfred & Co. 50 cents.
Hodgkins, Louise Manning. *Webster's First Bunker Hill Oration.* Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Hooper, G. Wellington. *Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.*
Hume, F. W. *The Girl from Malta.* Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Josephine, Countess Schwerin. *Three Years.* Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Jaurel, A. *Henry de Rohan, son rôle politique et militaire sous Louis XIII. (1579-1633.)* Paris: Firmin-Didot.
Leach, O. *The State and Local Government of New York.* Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Michelet, J. *Récits d'Histoire de France.* Part I. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
O'Connor, W. D. *Mr. Donnelly's Reviewers.* Belford, Clarke & Co.
Paul, Prof. H. *Grundriss der Germanischen Philologie.* Part I. Strassburg: Karl J. Tribner.
Phillipson, Rev. D. *The Jew in English Fiction.* Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. \$1.

JUST READY.

Remsen's Chemistry.

INORGANIC CHEMISTRY. By Ira Remsen, Professor of Chemistry in Johns Hopkins University. 8vo, 827 pp. (American Science Series Advanced Course). Teachers' price, \$2.80; by mail, \$3.08.

HENRY HOLT & Co., New York.

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